THE

LITERARY PANORAMA.

FOR NOVEMBER, 1806.

Report of the Arrangements which were made for the internal Defence of these Kingdoms, when Spain, by its Armada, projected the Invasion and Conquest of England; and Application of the wise Proceedings of our Ancestors to the present Crisis of public safety.—Not published. 8vo. pp. 420.

THE duties of government are more extensive and diversified, than those who are not immediately concerned in their execution can imagine. Shakespeare says well:

The slave, a member of the country's peace,
Enjoys it; but in gross brain little wots,
What watch the king keeps to maintain the peace,
Whose hours the peasant best advantages!

HEN. V.

When the commonwealth is threatened, the public officers of the state must meet those threats, at their personal peril; and must discharge the duties of their offices with promptitude, zeal and intelligence, or subject themselves to the reproaches and hatred of their contemporaries, to the execration and contempt of posterity.—Late events have roused the spirit of this country to exertions which exhibit no symptoms of declining empire; whatever some atrabilious politicians foreboded. An examination of what the power and patriotism of Britain has effected under our own observation, compared with those efforts that distinguished the brightest period of our national history, and days which we are taught to look back upon as eminently glorious, forms no weak antidote to that despondency which a few ill-informed minds or hypocondriac constitutions, have rather harboured than indulged, rather obscurely suggested, than openly acknowledged.

We consider ourselves therefore, as being very much obliged to a Right Honourable Friend who has favoured us with an opportunity of consulting the curious compilation announced in the present article. We understand that his Majesty conceiving the situation of his dominions lately to resemble in many respects that which issued so fortunately for England in the days of Queen Elizabeth, directed proper researches to be made for ascertaining the principles and preparations adopted at that period. Accordingly, the records in the Tower were consulted; and a selection of papers, apparently of the greatest consequence, was formed, and printed, but not published. They are classed in the order of external alliance, internal defence, military arrangements, and naval equipments. They are preceded by a statement of facts in the History of Europe, at the period of the Spanish Armada, and a sketch of events, shewing the effects of the Queen's measures, at home and abroad. It is very properly observed, that in 1588, the state of Scotland, as a neighbour, and perhaps, a rival, of England, constantly required a watchfulness and attention, which had a weighty influence on operations in the south. A portion, larger or smaller as exigencies were estimated, yet still a portion, of the English force was of necessity, attached to the northern counties, and the expence attending it was an unavoidable contingency, and felt as such by the exchequer. The internal situation of England itself was unsettled; in as much as the minds of many were averse from the establishment of protestantism, and retained no small regard for that manner of worship which their fathers had transmitted to their posterity as the only mean of salvation: of this persuasion the invader was the professed support and patron. The head and visible representative, to whom all who maintained this worship looked up with unbounded veneration, was, if not the instigator, yet the well-wisher of this attack on our island, had consecrated it by

his blessing, and had bestowed on it the title of "Invincible." Ireland too, acknowledged the Pope as its head, in religious matters; and dreaded nothing more than his anathema. Philip of Spain was the only enemy whose power could be thought formidable to England. His army was decidedly the most inured to arms, the best appointed and disciplined of any in Europe; it was already in Flanders, was commanded by the first General of the age, ready to act, and willing to pour its myriads, on the shores of its devoted prey. The navy of Philip was vast and unrivalled; he was at that time the great naval power of Europe; and his ports on the Continent, opposite to the most convenient landing places of England, gave him every advantage that could be desired. His influence with the catholic party in France was great; his resources in Europe and the Indies were immense; his national strength, his political dexterity, his personal character, induced the whole continent to conclude that England was most certainly overmatched, and that the hour was come, in which she must yield to an implacable and triumphant enemy. History relates with rapture the event of that perilous period: and from this æra we may date the progressive power of the British Navy. But what proportion of the then existing evils to be provided against by authority, is in activity at the present moment? Scotland is no longer a separate kingdom, but a horde of auxiliary heroes: the protestant succession is established in Britain beyond removal, and the political ascendancy of the catholic religion is an event whose probability makes no man's heart ache; the power of the Pope is the shadow of a shade, his consecrations or his execrations are regarded with the mere gaze of uninterested curiosity. Is the navy of Bonaparte equal to the navy of Philip? neither in reputation, power, nor skill. Are his troops superior to those which had long been hardened to service in Flanders? man for man they are inferior: and their very numbers, is their disadvantage in a project of invasion. The ports he possesses, are the same as Philip possessed; but their advantages are not increased during the lapse of ages; on the contrary, their essential strength is abated; and their relative strength is comparatively in a state of decay, if not of decrepitude. Nevertheless there are many points of comparison which attach uncommon interest to whatever is recorded concerning the Spanish Armada; we, therefore, coincide perfectly with the object for which this selection was commanded; and cannot help thinking that the dispositions of our forces in modern days, are at least equal in skill as they are superior in the spirit of enterprize, to those which were so happily crowned with success in the sixteenth century.

We shall consider the volume before us in two points of view: first as a collection of historical documents narrating an important event in British History; an event in which we ourselves are interested not only as antiquaries, as critics, as general readers, but as men and Britons, as Patriots and Philanthropists, as Protestants and Christians. Under a second point of view, we shall take occasion to compare the relative strength of this country in population, and other resources, as it was in the days of the valiant heroine who "though she had but the body of a "weak and feeble woman; yet had the "heart of a king; and of a king of Eng-"land too; and thought foul scorn, that "Parma or Spain, or any Prince of Eu-"rope, should dare to invade the borders "of her realms:"—with its present state, under a monarch who announced to Parliament his intention of unfurling the royal standard, and sharing the dangers as well as the honours of his country.

We shall first introduce specimens of the writing and manners of the age; including the judgment of our great naval officers, as to the duty of enterprize and activity against the enemy. There is a kind of English Bull-dog growling, in Lord Howard's letter, which seems to express in a manner perfectly natural, a persuasion that he had suffered the loss of a great victory: Sir Francis Drake's style is more lively. The difference in size between the Spanish and English vessels, as described by the English fugitives is very striking.

Lord Howard's Letter to Sir Francis Walsingham.

Sr. *15th June*, 1588.

Within three houres, after I had written my letter, which herewith I send you, I receaved your letter of the 9th of this present, by a pursuyvante, which letter I doe not a litle marvaile at; for thereby you signifie, that Her Ma'tie preceavinge, by a letter I sent you, heretofore, that I was mynded to goe on

the coaste of Spaine, to the Iles of Bayone, her pleasure is, that I shold not goe so far, but only, of and on, betwixte the coaste of Spaine and Englande, leste the Spanishe fleete shold com into the heighte of 50, and then shold bend theire course directlie to this realme. Sr. For the meaninge we had, to goe on the coaste of Spaine, it was deepely debated by those, which the world dothe judge to be men of the greatest experience, that this realme hath, which are theise, Sr. Fra. Drake, Mr. Hawkins, Mr. Frobisher, and Mr. Thos. Fenner; and I hope Her Majestie will not thinke, that we wente soe rashlie to work, or without a principall and choice care, and respecte of the saftie of this realme, we wold goe on the coaste of Spaine, and, therefore, our grounde was, firste to look to that principall. And yff we founde they did but linger on theire owne coaste, or that they were put into the Isles of Bayone, or the Groyne, then we thought, in all menne's judgements, that be of experience here, it had bin moste fit, to have soughte some good waie, and the sureste we cold devise (by the good protectione of God) to have defeated them. For this we considered, that the Spanishe forces, beinge for so long time victualled, as they are, mighte in very good policie, detract time, to drive us to consume oure victualles, which, for any thinge we can see, is not to be supplied againe, to serve the turne, by all the meanes that Her Majestie, and all you can doe. And if Her Ma'ty doe thinke, that she is hable to detracte time, with the Kinge of Spaine, she is greatlie deceaved, whiche may breed her greate peril. For this abusinge of the treaty of peace dothe playnelie shewe, howe the Kinge of Spaine will have all thinges perfecte, as his plote is layed before he will proceede to execute. I am persuaded, he will see the Duke of Gwise bringe the French K. to his purpose, before he will assaile. Yf his intention be soe, I praie you, when our victualles be consumed, in gasinge for them, what shal becom of us. Whether this may not breade moste greate danger and dishonour, I leave it to Her Ma'tis, wisdome; but if yt shold fall out soe, I wold I had never bin borne; and soe I am sure, many heare wold wishe, noe lesse, on their owne behalfe. And if we were tomorrowe, next on the coaste of Spaine, I wold not land, in any place, to offend anye, but they shold well perceave, that we came not to spoyle, but to seeke oute the greate force, to feighte with them; and soe shold they have knowne by message, which shold have bin the surest waie, and most honourable to Her Majestie; but nowe, as by your derectione, to lye, of and on, betwixte Englande and Spaine, the south west wind that shall bringe them to Scotland or Ireland, shall put us to the leewards. The seas are broade; but if we had bin on their coaste, they durst not have put of, to have left us on theire backs; and when they shall come, with the southwesterly wind, which must serve them, if they goe for Irelande or Scotlande, though we be as highe, as Cape Cleare, yet shall we not be hable to goe to them, as longe as the wind shal be westerlie. And if we lye so highe, then may the Spanishe fleet beare, with the coaste of France, to come for the Isle of Weighte, which for my parte, I thinke, if they come to Englande, they will attempt, then are we cleane oute of the waye of any service againste them. But I must, and will obeye; and I am glad, there be such there, as are liable to judge, what is fitter for us to doe, than we here; but, by my instructions which I had, I did thinke it otherwise; but I will put them up in a bag; and I shall most humblie praye Her Majestie to thinke, that that which we ment to doe, was not rashlie determyned, and that which shall be done, shall be most carefully used by us; and we will followe and obey Her Majestie's commandements. But if we had bin nowe, betwixte Spaine and Englande, we had bin but in hard case, the storme beinge soe stronge, and continueinge so longe as it hathe don; but upon the coaste of Spaine, we had had a land wind and places of succor. We ment not to have spoyled any towne or village, onely we muste, of necessitie, water; and when we lie betwixte both coastes, we muste come to this coaste to water, for soe we are enjoyned; and if the winde doe not serve us, to com on our owne coaste, then in what case shall we be, nowe that we muste not goe on the coaste of Spaine.

We laie 7 daies in the Sleeve, which was as longe as we could contynue there, without danger, as the winde was; and if som had bin with us, they should have seene, what a place of danger it is, to lye, of and on, in. Sr. You knowe it hath bin the opinion, bothe of Her Majestie and others, that it was the sureste course, to lye on the coaste of Spaine. I confess my erroure, at that time, which was otherwise; but I did, and will yeald, ever unto them of greater experience; yet you knowe, it was thoughte by Her Majestie, that we might go into Lisbone to defeate them, which was the strongest place. Therfore, I thought, that if we had hard, that they had bin at the Iles of Bayone, or in the Groyne, which was 10 times more easie to defeat them in, I thinke it would have bin good service. But Sir, I will perswade noe more, but doe as I am directed. And God sende the winde doe not force us thither, otherwise, uppon my dewtie we will go thither, nowe we knowe Her Ma'ties pleasure. And soe, I bid you most hartelie farewelle.

From on boarde Her Ma'tie's good shippe,

Arke, in Plymouthe sound, the 15th of June 1588.

Your assured lovinge Frende.
C. HOWARDE.

To the Righte Honourable my very lovinge Frende Sir Francis Walsingham Knight, principall Secretary to Her Majestie.

[Extract.] *Letter from Sir Francis Drake to Sir F. Walsingham.—24th July*, 1588.

We have the army of Spayne before us, and mind, with the grace of God, to wrestle or fall with them. There was never any thing pleased me better, than the seeing the enemie flying, with a south wind, to the northwards. God grant they have a good eye to the Duke of Parma, for, with the grace of God, if we live, I doubt it not, but ere it be long, so to handle the matter with the Duke of Sidonia, *as he shall wish himself at St. Maria among his orenge trees.*

God give us grace to depend upon him, so shall we not doubt victory; for our cause is good. Humbly taking my leave, this last of July, 1588,

Your Honour's faithfully to be co'manded ever,
Fra. Drake.

P. S. I crave pardon of your Honor for my haste, for that I had to watch, this last night, upon the enemy.

Your's ever,
Fra. Drake.

We discover in these sentiments the very reasonings of the immortal Nelson: let us now survey the force concerning which our Admiral's fear was, not their coming forward but their getting away.

The Substaunce of certain Maryners' Report touching the Spanish fleet.

August, 88.

Certain Maryners of this countrie to the number of 19, which have bene in the Spanysh fleet, ever since they first putt to sea, and are nowe fledd awaie from them, having made sailes, for their cockboats, with their shirts, do reporte and say; that all the fleete, being 150 saile, did set forth out of Lisborne, the 20th May, and commyng neere England, were driven back again, by contrary winds; that in all the whole number of them was but 20,000 men, whereof 10,000 good soldiers, the rest common men; that theie were victualled for 3 months, and, for any great sicknesse, there was none, as it was reported, nether did land any more sick persons at the Groyne, than 300, from whence they putt to sea, the 22d July, *stilo-vetere*, and came to the Land's Ende by the 28th of the same, and till they came over against Plimuth, they met with no man, where 40 of her Ma'ty's shippes did skirmish with them, and one galleasse was taken, another sett on fire; by reason the captaine falling into a rage with the gunner, and threatening to kill him if he shot no righter; the gunner cast fire into the powder barrels, and threwe himself overboard. In this shipp, theie say, was the treasure, and 5 ensigns of Spaniards. After this againe at Portland, and the Isle of Wight, her Ma'ty's navie set upon them, but no great hurt done; but betweene Cales and the Blacknes, most furiouslie, where a great galeass was taken, and three other great shipps with 1000 men a-piece sunk downe right about the Goodwines; besides another Italian ship, which they take to be sunk also, because they made signs for helpe, but none made towards them; that there, about Cales theie were forced to cut their cabels, by the ships of fire which came upon them, out of her Ma'ty's fleete, and soe, from thence fledd awaie with all speede; that they were driven thus above Dunkerke, and there about Blanckenburgh, one of their greate shippes was grounded on the Wheelings, and taken by them of Flushing, wherein were 500 Spaniards, of whom 150 are come to Roterodam, the rest cast overboard; that before their fight, about Cales, which was on the Sundaye, the D. of Parma sent them word, he would assist them the next daie; but for that he kept not promise, theie generallie crie out against him. That on the Satterday, he did what he could to imbarque his men, but it would not be, notwithstanding that with his own handes he did kill some souldiers and captaynes; that, in all, theie had not above 300 horse, and some mules for carriage of their field ordinance; that, generallie, the Englishmen have greatlie endamaged them with ordinance; and that in the fleete, they did see, through the port-holes an Italian ship all full of blood, which yet mainteined the fight, in her ranke, 3 hours after; that one of her Ma'ty's ships valiantlie passed through them, to charge the Admirall, who fledd away, and, as theie say, doth seeme to be wonderfully dismaied and discouraged; that when theie left them, and fledd awaie, theie were as high as Walcheren, yet about 100 saile, but uncertain what course to take, or where to turn in, for relief; for into Spaine theie dared not returne, because at their coming out, they were all threatened hanging, if they conquered not England, and that theie had brought *great store of halters to hang up all Englishmen*; but, they think, they will round about Scotland; that her Ma'ty's navie followed them, alwaies hard, and drove them, like a flock of sheepe, but durst not aboard them because theie are so high built, so as 40 of our's were troubled, to take one of their greatest armadas, at the last fight, on Mondaie; that as they think, they should have landed, about the Isle of Wight; that, 3 days and 3 nights, after they came

upon the coast of England, they did hull without sailes, minding to come to Dunkerke upon the spring tiers; that they have greate neede of maryners, especially of pilots; for that ship which came on ground, upon the Wheelings, had but one pilot, and he was of Flushing; that when they sett forth, out of Lisborne, there were certain galeasses in their companye, but they came not with them, from the Groyne; thata greate Britayn shippe was also taken, or sunk, by the English. In summe, theie confess, the D. Medina to be wonderfully amazed and to stagger, which way he may turn himself; that there were a greate number of the *Hidalgos* of Spain in their armye, and that now theire chiefe bulwarks and armades being discomfited, they may easily be overthrown, if they be followed as they should.

The ship, whose prisoners are brought to Roterodam, was taken betweene Dunkerke and Ostendt, and had been shot through 350 times; being grounded, 5 shippes of this countrye tooke them to mercie; another was also taken by 7 of this country fleet, between Cales and Dunkerke. The names of certain prisoners of accompt, taken in the former ship are theis.

Don Diego de Pomentello, frere du Marquis de Tauvror, mayster du camp du ziera du Sicile.

Don Jhan de Velassa, frere du Conte Servinello.

Le Capt. Martin d'Auales.

Le Capt. Marques.

Alonzo du Vergas.

In the one shippe were 32 pieces of brass, and in the other 63.

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Relation of the Spanish Armado, which departed from Lisborne, the 30th of May, 1588, Stilo nuovo, even as it is certified from Lisborne.

First,	Great hulkes	- - -	40
Item,	Gallions -	- - - -	60
Item,	Great shippes	- - -	30
Item,	Galliasses	- - - -	4
Item,	Galleys -	- - - -	8
Item,	Pinasses -	- - - -	24
		In all -	166
Item,	Castillians	soldiers	16,000
Item,	Portingalls	- do.	3,000
Item,	Mariners	- - -	6,128
Item,	Pionners	- - -	2,000
	In all, of men	-	27,128

In the same Armado, there cometh friars 180

In all the saide Armado, there is of artillery pieces - - - - - - - - - 1493

The General of the Armado, the Duke de Medina Sidonia.

There cometh allso, in the same, the Prince Dascoli, as Commander, the Conte de Feuntes, the Conte de Paredes.

Item, 25 Knights of the second order, being sonnes and brothers to Marquisses and Earles.

We the rather have inserted this paper, because there are two dukes of Medina: Medina Sidonia, and Medina Cœli. Hume has left this commander unidentified by only naming him Duke of Medina; and Rapin has erred by calling him Duke of Medina Cœli. The Sidonian estates are near Cadiz, and are supposed to take their names from the ancient Sidonians who traded and settled in this place. The estates of Medina Cœli we believe, are towards Grenada, on the opposite coast of Spain. The two families are perfectly distinct.

To meet this formidable armament the following was the number of ships in the kingdom, returned to the Queen's enquiries. To compare it with the present state of our shipping, would be little short of ridiculous.

Total number of ships, 100 to 240 tons		177
Of these London had	- 60	
Newcastle on Tyne	- 17	
Hull - - -	- 11	
Bristowe - -	- 9	
Total number of ships, 80 to 100 tons		74
Of these London had	- 25	
Newcastle - -	- 8	
Hull - - -	- 7	
Bristowe - -	- 1	
Hoys, Barks, and under 80 tons	-	1383
Of these London had	- 44	
Newcastle - -	- 121	
Hull - - -	- 8	
Bristowe - -	- 19	
		1634

The coast counties including London report

Masters - -	- 1,488
Mariners and Seamen	11,515
Fishermen - -	2,299
Wherrymen - -	957

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An Abstracte.	Men.
34 of Her Majesties Shippes, greatte and small - - - - - - - - -	6,264
34 Marchants Shippes with Sir F. Drake westward - - - - - -	2,394
29 Shippes and Barques, paid by the Citie of London - - - - - -	2,140
33 Shippes and Barques, which is victuallers, under the Lord Admyrall	1,561
19 Coasters, greate and small, under the Lord Admyral, paid by the Queen	943

23 Coasters, under the Lord Henry Seymour, paid by the Queen	1,093
23 Voluntarye Ships, great and small	939
Totallis	196 Shippes. 15,334 Men.

Such was the then naval ability of England!

The following document was found at the state paper Office, without a date; but from the names of the Privy Council inserted in it, it must have been drawn up under Edward VI, 1548. Beside giving the general abstract, we insert the counties at length, for the sake of comparison with the present times.

Abstract Quotas of Men, furnished by the Council, Bishops, Lords, and several Counties. 1548.

	Horse.	*Foot.*	*Total.*
The Counsaill	1141	4400	5541
The Lords	545	5371	5916
The Byshoppes	81	2340	2421
Privie Chambre	190	3369	3559
			17437

Counties.			
Cornwall	3	572	575
Essex	57	316	373
Norfolk	2	821	823
Sussex	9	140	149
Suffolke	6	525	531
Southampton	23	453	476
Bedford	24	238	262
Buks	56	401	457
Berks	43	559	602
Cambridge	—	221	221
Huntingdon	3	75	78
Hertford	28	205	233
Middlesex	5	61	66
Surry	14	221	235
Kent	28	450	478
Northampton	74	792	866
Oxon	236	417	653
Rutland	14	339	353
Hereford	11	509	520
Dorsett	31	1019	1050
Devon	79	1335	1414
Glouc[r]	123	2329	2452
Leicestre	88	244	332
Somerset	46	691	731
Wiltes	76	507	583
Warrwic	98	568	666
Wigorn	63	672	735
Monmoth	16	421	437
Brecknok	—	360	360
Glamorgan	54	296	350
Radnour	4	42	46
Carmarthen	38	170	208
Pembroke	439	315	754
Cardigan	—	50	50
Denbigh	12	428	440
Mountgomery	3	43	46
Flynte	8	84	92
Carnarvon	—	148	148
Anglise	—	81	81
Merionethe	4	148	152
Somme of all	3684	31055	35639

Comparison of the same Counties, only; the other Counties being omitted.

1803.

The following numbers do not include officers of any kind; *they* are given at the foot of the account. Whether a similar omission is made in the returns of 1548 we cannot affirm; but incline to think so.

Horse.	*Foot.*	*Artillery.*	*Rank & file.*
383	5432	2328	7772
1251	6335	—	7033
1120	6511	108	6918
1024	6114	637	6198
769	6837	—	7332
1252	7164	836	9509
177	1801	—	1978
1222	2426	—	3121
634	3006	—	3485
103	2485	—	2590
166	840	—	1006
625	2319	50	2762
82	8209	—	8379
944	7801	—	8105
1530	8804	253	10285
1037	6511	—	6918
591	3322	—	3516
160	335	—	495
180	3720	—	3532
515	2201	—	2340
1873	13197	1325	15212
664	6436	176	7161
622	2946	—	3488
1544	7747	—	9080
850	4524	—	5176
708	3784	—	4146
494	4046	—	4304
125	1624	—	1656
—	1196	—	1196
213	2488	—	2301
—	1000	—	1000
120	2316	—	2347
440	1851	70	2197
—	567	—	531
194	2344	—	2464
120	1560	—	1680
270	2429	—	2698
—	1100	—	1073
—	1000	—	1000
—	464	—	455

1588. QUEEN ELIZABETH.

Totalls of all the Men and Lighthorse to be furnished out of England and Wales.

England -	The whole some of men to be furnished out of all the shires		87,281
South Wales	Light Horse	280	
	Able Men	19,379	
	Armed Men	4,405	
			24,064
North Wales	Light Horse	385	
	Able Men	16,652	
	Armed Men	4,307	
			21,344
Total - Men			132,689

1803. GEORGE III.

The opposite column includes the Totals of England and Wales, only: the following comprises the whole of Great-Britain including 35,832 cavalry.

	Total.
Rank and File	341687
Field Officers -	- 1246
Captains - -	- 4472
Subalterns -	- 9918
Staff Officers -	- 1100
Serjeants - -	- 14787
Corporals -	- 11733
Drummers -	- 6733
Grand Total	379943

The foregoing lists afford grounds for various important remarks; as 1. The comparative population of the whole kingdom, which we may fairly suppose bore some analogy to the numbers of effective men able to bear arms, and ready for martial exploits.

2. The relative numbers enrolled in each County, by which the population of that County may be estimated, and the difference of its number of inhabitants guessed at. For instance, Cornwall, which formerly yielded only 575 men (perhaps *excluding* officers) has yielded 16,996 men, officers *included*.

3. The number of horsemen; of which *e. gr.* Essex yielded only 57, is now 1251. And with this department, may, without impropriety, be connected the idea of the proportionate comfort and wealth of the people: only those whose business is of sufficient magnitude to require the assistance of this useful animal, or those whose easy circumstances permit them this enjoyment, usually incurring the expense and trouble attending it.

In the estimate of the comparative population must be included, our settlers abroad, in the East and West Indies, &c. our soldiers in distant garrisons and possessions; our seamen, as well those in the royal navy, as in the merchants' service; the various bodies of sea-fencibles on the coast, &c. &c., of which no returns are here noticed. Of such absentees very small was the amount in Queen Elizabeth's days: but in the present day their whole number is very great. It will be observed too, that the numbers we have taken are ONLY those of the Volunteer and Yeomanry corps, from a return made to the Honorable the House of Commons, December 6, 1803.

We should pursue these inferences further, and should consider them more closely, if we had proper data for forming any reasonable conjecture as to the proportion which the men in arms bore to those who were capable of military duties; and what proportion these might bear to the whole of their sex. The fact is, we know not how far these levies were *voluntary*; where, when, or how, or on what terms they were enrolled, with many other particulars. If we consider these as being much the same in both periods, the absolute strength of this kingdom in men, will appear to have increased prodigiously, in the last two centuries, notwithstanding the ravages of war, civil, continental, and maritime, and the still more considerable, because perpetual drain occasioned by emigration.

We come now to that important article which the French very significantly denominate *ammunition de bouche*.

The footmen were allowed,

By the Daye.		*For* 100 *Men.*	
Breade -	1½lb.	Breade -	150 lb.
Beere -	2 quarts	Beere -	50 gall.
Wyne -	1 quart	Wyne -	25 gall.
Beef - -	2½lb.	Byskett -	100 lb.
Butter -	1½lb.	Beef -	250 lb.
Cheese -	1 lb.	Butter -	50 lb.
Biskett -	1 lb.	Cheese -	100 lb.
For 7 *dayes.*			
Breade -	10½lb.	Breade -	1050 lb.
Biskett -	7 lb.	Biskett -	700 lb.
Beere -	14 quarts	Beere -	350 gall.
Wyne -	7 quarts	Wyne -	700 quarts
Beef -	17½ lb.	Beef	1750 lb.
Butter -	3½ lb.	Butter -	350 lb.
Cheese -	7 lb.	Cheese -	700 lb.

Every bushel of wheate makethe 20 loaves, at 3 lb. the loafe and 6 oz. unbaked, the branne ranged out.

Everie 12 bushels of malte, makethe one tonne of beere, of Burge's cask, *viz.* 60 gallons eche hoggesheade, 4 of these to the tonne.

But the ration of a horseman, beside a proportionate augmentation of other viands, was increased to 3½ lbs. of beef, which seems to justify the sarcastic remark of the Constable of France,—"the "men do sympathize with their mastiffs, "in robustious and rough coming on, "and then give them great meals of beef, "and iron and steel, they will eat like "wolves, and fight like devils." HEN. V.

The following list of provisions furnished by the counties respectively, may assist in enabling us to form some idea of their state of cultivation, and of the produce depending on it, in the sixteenth century. The supply appears to us to be but small, and we observe in all the letters of the naval commanders such a sense of their deficiency in stores, and the necessity of returning home for victuals, as convinces us that the royal offices were very ill supplied; and looks something like a proof that the general stock of provision in the country was quickly sensible of any sudden or unusual demands on it.

We may safely ask, what quantities above 200 qrs. of wheat Surrey, and what above 300 qrs. Essex, could *now* supply? and what impression the purchase of 600 oxen would make on the butchery of London? We imagine *six times* that quantity is no uncommon number for a contractor to select in the London market, in three or four months. An estimate of what quantities each county could furnish we believe was made out in 1803, by order of the House of Commons, but not printed.

The opinion of Edward Baishe, General Surveyor of Her Majesty's Victual, for the Sea, declaring out of what Sheires, Wheate, Maulte, Oxen, Butter and Cheese are to be had.

Kent	wheate	1000	qu'rs.
	maulte	600	
Surry	wheate	200	
	maulte		
Sussex	wheate	600	
	maulte	600	
	oxen	100	
Dorset	wheate	500	
	maulte	400	
	oxen	200	
Wilton	wheate	400	
	maulte		
	oxen	100	
Berks	wheate	500	
	maulte	700	
	oxen	100	
Essex	wheate	300	qu'rs.
	maulte	300	
	oxen	100	
Hertford	maulte	600	
	wheate	300	
Cambridge	maulte	1000	
Suffolke	wheate	100	
	maulte	200	
	cheese	600	weighs
	butter	300	barrels
Norfolk	wheate	800	
	maulte	1000	
	butter	100	barrels
Huntingdon	wheate	300	
	maulte	400	
	oxen	150	
Oxford	wheate	200	
	maulte	400	
Southampton	wheate	800	
	maulte	400	
	oxen	150	
Stafford and Leicester	oxen	400	
Warwick & Northamp.	oxen	200	
Lincoln and Rutland	oxen	400	
Bedford & Buckingham	oxen	300	
Derby and Nottingham	oxen	300	
Worcester and Salop	oxen	300	
Gloucester and liberties	oxen	300	
Butchery of London	oxen	600	
Total, for 10,000 men,	wheate	5600	qu'rs.
	maulte	7000	
	oxen	3900	
	butter	400	barrels
	cheese	600	weighs

Endorced by Ld. Burgheley, 26th Jan. 1586.

We could with pleasure extract a number of other articles, equally curious, but have somewhat freely indulged ourselves already, in transcription, knowing that copies of this compendium are extremely uncommon. We must however add, that London is stated to contain 20,696 "able housholders, servaunts of "our nation, within the wardes;" 933 "strangers, able men for service; and "36 personnes, *suspected in religion!*"

We are perfectly sensible that much of the prosperity of a nation is derived from the steadiness of its government, the equity of its laws, the lenity of its manners, the integrity of its citizens, the confidence of its merchants, the spirit of its heroes, the skill of its artificers, and the policy of its statesmen; but whoever rests his hopes on these, may see them fail, one after another; or a spirit of disloyalty may diffuse itself throughout the

community, and render them all unavailing; or a shifting of the general duty of all, from self, to whoever pleases to discharge it, may baffle all calculation; a symptom uncommonly alarming! for how can virtue and wisdom be executed by deputy? While, therefore, we applaud the readiness of Queen Elizabeth to meet the exigency of her times with a truly noble fortitude, and a truly sagacious preparation, we admire that dignified veneration which attributed her successes to the Divine will, and recorded her dependance not on an host, though she had a host of Englishmen, nor on a navy, though her navy was heart of oak, but on Providence. *Afflavit Deus et dissipantur*, the motto adopted on her medals, does her no less honour than her speech at Tilbury, or her thunders directed by Howard and Drake. May the issue prove that posterity is equally ready in this act of duty, this acknowledgment, to which we are bound by every sentiment of patriotism, by every sense of personal obligation, and by every dictate of piety!

The Life of Sir Walter Raleigh, Knt. by Arthur Cayley, jun. Esq. in two volumes, 4to. pp. 538, with an Appendix, pp. 115. Price £1 16s. 1805. Also in 8vo. price £1 1s. 1806. Cadell and Davies. London.

Among the most pleasing studies offered by literature, Biography occupies a principal place. That curiosity which distinguishes the human mind is fond of tracing step by step the lives and manners of those who have risen to eminence by their personal good conduct; and when they are such as lived in ages past, we unroll the "ample page of know-"ledge," and become acquainted with them by means of history. In particular, the eminent personages of our own country are subjects of our more earnest attention: the feelings of patriotism unite with the stimulus of curiosity, to impart a double zest to our pleasure when memoirs of such are under our perusal. Perhaps, too, we derive gratification of the purest kind from considering those great men who are not our contemporaries; for against them we entertain no animosity: no party spirit lurks in the secret recesses of the mind, diminishing the due share of praise to which they are entitled, or augmenting into guilt those failings from which the most virtuous or the most judicious, are not absolutely free.

To these considerations we may add the power of completing the whole by examining the result. The mind is pleased with the opportunity of combining into one, the introductory events, the progress of occurrences, and their ascertained termination: free from that painful state of suspense as to the issue, that uneasy feeling which accompanies conjecture as to what may be the turn of affairs, and what the *denouement* of the whole.

We have always been fond of biography, but at the same time have supposed that the life of every man comprises a lesson which should not be lost on the world. "Some achieve greatness;" and if they achieve it honourably, their principles are so many lessons of honour; if dishonourably, if "damned to everlasting "fame," they serve as beacons to warn mankind to preserve a cautious distance from the rocks and quicksands wherein such have perished. We cannot therefore commend the volumes before us as a complete example of biographical writing, because the author has professedly employed his leisure in simply "collecting "and arranging the scattered parts of Sir "Walter's story." This being his object it is unjust to try him by principles of a higher description. If he has accomplished what he undertook, and we think he has, he may rest satisfied with a success which not every author can boast, and perhaps by not having attempted too much he has the better effected what he thought proper to attempt. We are obliged to him for what he has done, though we regret the pleasure we might have enjoyed had he ventured further and succeeded in doing more.

The general events of Sir Walter Raleigh's life are known to our readers. Mr. Cayley treads almost closely in the steps of Mr. Holdys who prefixed a life of Raleigh to the Knight's "History of the "World," the first edition of which was published in 1614, and the eleventh, and best, by Mr. O. in 1736. Dr. Thomas Birch in 1751 prefixed also a life to the miscellaneous works in 2 vols 8vo of this eminent character. Sir W. was fourth son of Walter Raleigh, Esq. of Fardel in the parish of Cornwood, near Plymouth. The first part of his life was passed in obscurity, though he studied during some years

at Oxford, in Oriel College. About seventeen he went as a gentleman soldier to France, was at Paris during the famous Bartholomew massacre, but how he escaped is not known. From this period we find him engaged in a variety of enterprizes; now fitting out ships for discoveries and settling of colonies; as, to America in 1579, and Virginia in 1584, on which colony he spent £40,000; but at length transferred his patent to certain merchants of London. Sometimes we find him discharging the duties of Vice-Admiral of her Majesty's fleet, and doing all possible injury to Spain and her colonies. Sometimes he appears in the not less arduous character of a member of the English Parliament, promoting the advantage of his native country. He was eminent as a writer, respectable as a poet, and it is thought, while confined in the Tower, not unsuccessful as a chemist. To these parts of Sir Walter's character the volumes before us bear ample testimony. It is to be acknowledged, with regret, that the justice due to Sir Walter necessarily involves justice of another kind due to his persecutors. The Court of Queen Elizabeth, was, like other courts, a region of party; even while his royal mistress lived, Raleigh was exposed to the spirit of rivalship, and the insinuations of jealousy: more than once was the Queen irritated against him, and his favour at court was "shorn of its beams." But, when Elizabeth who was more than woman was dead, and James who was less than man had succeeded her, the Knight's good fortune rapidly declined. He had been appointed captain of the guard, by Elizabeth, but this in a few weeks he was directed to relinquish, receiving in requital but a moderate compensation; and in less than three months he was arraigned at the bar for high treason.

This trial is one of those disgraceful incidents in our history, which patriotism may wish had never occurred, yet, which having occurred, patriotism would not wish should be expunged. The unmannerly insolence of Coke, the Attorney General, is a lasting stigma on his character. What shall we think of the man whose violence led him to use such gross language as "thou viper; for I *thou* thee, "thou traitor," a triplication which did not escape the notice and lash of Shakespeare, who makes Sir Toby Belch advise Sir Andrew Aguecheek to "taunt" his adversary "with the licence of ink: if thou *thou'st* him some *thrice* it shall not be amiss; and as many lies as will lie in thy sheet of paper, although the sheet were big enough for the bed of Ware in England, set 'em down. Go about it——let there be gall enough in thy ink; though thou write with a goose pen no matter,—about it." This allusion is too plain to be mistaken; and shews the feeling of the public mind on this occasion, for otherwise the incident would have been dangerous in a work intended to be popular, like a play.

The law of the land was further violated, in the admission of incompetent evidence; for whereas the law requires *two* witnesses, and those to be examined, *viva voce*, in open court; the adversaries of Raleigh, though *one* witness was in their power, did not produce him, but eked out the charges against the prisoner by a mass of papers, and hearsays, which we are happy to think would be scouted from before the seat of justice in these days. The judge Popham, acted in a manner disgraceful to his station.

It should seem, that Coke in accusing our knight without proving his guilt, and the judges in condemning him, not according to law, did no more than comply with the humour of their master; accordingly, Raleigh was condemned; but execution of his sentence being stayed, he spent twelve years in imprisonment in the Tower. Here he found in letters that alleviation of his troubles, which only an enlightened mind can procure, and here he composed that most considerable proof of his genius and learning the "History of the world." He at length obtained his liberty, by a bribe of £1500, to two favourites of the King; but trusted to the King's generosity for his pardon, and being honoured with the royal commission to search for a gold mine in Guiana, he concluded too presumptively, that his former condemnation was cancelled by his present office. The error cost him his life; for after returning unsuccessful he was arrested on his former condemnation, though fifteen years had elapsed, and being taken for dead in law, was beheaded in Palace Yard, Oct. 29, 1616.

But perhaps the most flagrant instance of imbecility, not to call it treason against his subjects, is the conduct of King James,

who on occasion of this voyage obliged Raleigh to give him in detail every particular of his plan against a part of the South American coast where the Spaniards had a settlement, bound him not to deviate from this plan, in the smallest particular, and then communicated the whole scheme to Spain: insomuch, that *this very paper of particulars was found in the house of the Spanish Governor of the place attacked!* Our readers will no doubt participate in our indignation: but words are inadequate to express our feelings at such baseness.

The mere outline of this history leads to the inference, that however Mr. Cayley may have declined to introduce those reflections, which would have added interest and dignity to his volumes, yet that the story itself, naturally suggests sentiments which are capable of being directed to excellent purposes. It will be none of the least of these if young courtiers should learn from the example of Raleigh, the extreme lubricity of the polished surface on which they stand. Let them state their own pretensions in the most available terms, let them urge their merit, their services, their alacrity in obeying, their every quality which becomes either the station they occupy or that they desire, can they surpass, nay, can they equal Sir Walter Raleigh? Was he not one of the glories of the court in the glorious days of the immortal Elizabeth? was he not wise in council, intrepid in action, adventurous of his property, and persevering in his undertakings; as a soldier not inferior to any; as a seaman superior to most; learned as a literato, judicious as a statesman; qualified *tam Marti quam Mercurio?* Where Sir Walter fell, let all be cautious. And if any whose vigorous minds know better, have been deluded by ambition into wishes for honour and distinction, let them ask themselves whether they are content to procure them at similar hazards? and whether real felicity is not more certainly within their reach, while private, than it would be were they in the most conspicuous of situations? Happily for mankind, not many can be great: if one in a thousand be raised to honour, there are nine hundred and ninety-nine left to the possibilities of happiness. Such are the chances of life!

Besides the regular narration of Sir Walter's life, Mr. Cayley has inserted at length, the histories of several of his voyages, his judgment on sundry points of political economy, in which we recognize those very principles which the present age considers as unquestionably proper for adoption; also various letters, and other papers of more or less importance, but connected with the story and contributing to illustrate it. Sir Walter's instructions to his son close that part which is denominated his life. An Appendix of 115 pages, containing scarce pieces, and proper documents to support the narration previously given, is added to the second volume. Such of these as display our knight's opinion on the preparations necessary to be made, in order to receive an enemy as becomes Englishmen, and how to distribute our forces for his welcome after he is landed, are not without interest in the present situation of our country. His letter to Prince Henry on ship building, shews his intimate knowledge of that branch of art; we cannot however, but smile at the then Spanish principle of *Grande navio grande fatica*, compared with the sizes of their modern Santa Anna, San Carlos, San Josef, and especially their famous Santissima Trinidada. This appendix closes with a refutation of Mr. Hume's reasons for inferring the guilt of Sir Walter, and that he practised a delusion on the King in the affair of the gold mine. The reasons are drawn from the King's declaration, which also is given at length. Some of them are weak enough.

It is our wish to promote the publication of correct histories of the most striking events which have occurred in our nation: we therefore view with indulgence and pleasure every attempt of the kind. We are glad to see that the favourable reception of the quarto edition, has induced Mr. Cayley to print in 8vo. and shall be glad for his sake that both copies may soon become scarce.

The Poetical Works of William Julius Mickle, including several original Pieces, with a new Life of the Author. By the Rev. John Sim, A. B. 18mo. pp. 188. Life lxiv. Price 5s. sewed. Symonds, &c. London, 1806.

A neat little volume, containing the completest collection of this Poet's works, that has been presented to the public. To commend an author so well known as

Mickle, is altogether superfluous. The Life, prefixed, appears to be the most particular and comprehensive we have ever read: and "is composed," says Mr. Sim, who dedicates to the Bishop of Norwich, "from his private correspondence, and "from the information which I received "from himself, during an unreserved in- "timacy of more than sixteen years." We shall not analyse this narrative; but content ourselves with generally commending it: there is however so much good sense and valuable advice in Lord Lyttleton's Letters to Mickle, that we cannot but insert one of them by way of specimen.

Sir, Hagley Park, Aug. 28, 1764.

I should have sooner returned the verses you sent me, if I had not been hindered by a great deal of company from considering them enough to give you my thoughts on the beauties or faults of them with the necessary strictness of criticism. But having now read them over with a good deal of attention, I dare venture to assure you, that the first of the two Odes has all the merit that just sentiment, fine poetical imagery, elegant diction, and harmonious numbers, can give to so trite a subject. There is also in some stanzas a sublimity of thought and expression which raises it above the ordinary pitch of mere descriptive poetry.

As to the poem on the death of Mary, Queen of Scots, I will not criticise any part of it, because I wholly disapprove the subject. Poetry should not consecrate what history must condemn; and it is as certain as history can render any fact, that (besides her criminal amours with David Rizzio and Bothwell) she was an accomplice in the murder of the King, her husband. Read Thuanus or Hume, (who have written her history more truly than Robertson,) and you will be inclined to pity, but not to praise her; nor will Robertson himself, though he shades her crimes as much as possible, give you such an idea of her as to make you think her a proper subject for the encomiums of a writer who means to serve the cause of virtue, and not of party.

With regard to the plan of your poem on Providence, I think what you propose is a far better solution of the difficulties that appear in the moral government of the world than Mr. Pope's. Whoever is miserable will feel that his philosophy is *vana et ficta*; but if he be virtuous, and reads the latter part of your first Ode, he will find *there* a real and effectual consolation. You cannot, therefore, do better than to have recourse to that hope in your justification of Providence; any other, I am sure, will prove insufficient. The analogy between the *plant* contained *perfect* in the *seed*, and the *angel* in the *man**, I like extremely. St. Paul says, we shall go to the spirits of just men *made perfect*. All here is imperfect; but the tendency to perfection, and the capacity of attaining it, justify the Creator. Adieu.

Dear Sir, do not be discouraged at difficulties, but cultivate your fine genius, and employ it as you have begun, in the service of virtue and religion. This will give you a crown far exceeding the poet's laurel, *unfading in the heavens!* I am with the most sincere esteem and regard, Sir, your's, &c. L.

* "As the acorn's germ
Perfect in all its branchy pride contains
The future oak that soon shall brave the sky;
So folded up in all it's godlike powers
In man that mourns, the future angel lies:
Though imperfection mark his every power,
His every virtue, and his every joy,
Yet where a native dignity of mind
And pure sincerity, that fertile soil,
Of noblest virtues join, conspicuous there
A rising tendency to worth divine
And full perfection glows."—*Providence.*

The Birds of Scotland, with other Poems. By James Grahame. 12mo. pp. 248. Price 7s. Edinburgh printed, Longman and Co. London. 1806.

THE author before us combines with a vigorous imagination and a lively vein of poetry, some of those gross negligences which occasionally disgrace genius. His eye as a man of observation seems to be better than his ear as a man of numbers, yet every poet must be a man of numbers, or his productions will suffer by his defect. We consider Mr. G. however, as a bard of merit, and promise, and hope on some future occasion to congratulate him on producing a *finished* performance. The "Biblical Pictures" are too slight, even to assume importance: the Sonnets on the Months have received more attention; but the most laboured production in the volume is the Birds of Scotland; in which we find very much to commend, and in some passages ideas exquisitely poetical, notwithstanding various lines of these very passages sin against both metre and cadence. We shall extract his description of the wren and the eagle, which in the poem are very properly placed in distinct books.

The little woodland dwarf, the tiny WREN,
That from the root-sprigs trills her ditty clear.
Of stature most diminutive herself,
Not so her wonderous house; for, strange to tell!
Her's is the largest structure that is formed
By tuneful bill and breast. 'Neath some old root,

From which the sloping soil, by wintry rains,
Has been all worn away, she fixes up
Her curious dwelling, close, and vaulted o'er,
And in the side a little gateway porch,
In which (for I have seen) she'll sit and pipe
A merry stave of her shrill roundelay.
Nor always does a single gate suffice
For exit, and for entrance to her dome;
For when (as sometimes haps) within a bush
She builds the artful fabric, then each side
Has its own portico. But, mark within!
How skilfully the finest plumes and downs
Are softly warped; how closely all around
The outer layers of moss! each circumstance
Most artfully contrived to favour warmth!
Here read the reason of the vaulted roof,
Here Providence compensates, ever kind,
The enormous disproportion that subsists
Between the mother and the numerous brood,
Which her small bulk must quicken into life.
Fifteen white spherules, small as moorland hare-bell.
And prettily bespecked like fox-glove flower,
Complete her number. Twice five days she sits,
Fed by her partner, never flitting off,
Save when the morning sun is high, to drink
A dew-drop from the nearest flowret-cup.
But now behold the greatest of this train
Of miracles, stupendously minute;
The numerous progeny, clamant for food,
Supplied by two small bills, and feeble wings
Of narrow range; supplied, aye, duly fed,
Fed in the dark, and yet not one forgot! pp. 41-43.

. . . . . .

From scenes like these, O, Scotland, once again
To thee my weary fancy fondly hies,
And, with the EAGLE, mountain-perched, alights.
Amid Lochaber's wilds, or dark Glencoe,
High up the pillared mountain's steepest side,
The eagle, from her eyry on the crag
Of over-jutting rock, beholds afar.
Viewing the distant flocks, with ranging eye
She meditates the prey; but waits the time
When seas of mist extend along the vale,
And, rising gradual, reach her lofty shore:
Up then to sunny regions of the air
She soars and looks upon the white-wreathed summits
Of mountains, seeming ocean isles, then down
She plunges, stretching through the hazy deep;
Unseen she flies, and, on her playful quarry,
Pounces unseen: The shepherd knows his loss,
When high o'er-head he hears a passing bleat
Faint, and more faintly, dying far away,
And now aloft she bends her homeward course,
Loaded, yet light; and soon her youngling pair,
Joyful descry her buoyant wing emerge
And float along the cloud; fluttering they stoop
Upon the dizzy brink, as if they aimed
To try the abyss, and meet her coming breast;
But soon her coming breast, and outstretched wings, [heads.
Gilde shadowing down, and close upon their

When low'rs the rack unmoving, high up-piled,
And silence deep foretells the thunder near,
The eagle upward penetrates the gloom,
And, far above the fire-impregnate wreaths,
Soaring surveys the ethereal volcanos;
Till, muttering low at first, begins the peal;
Then she descends; she loves the thunder's voice;
She wheels, and sports amid the rattling clouds,
Undazzled gazes on the sheeted blaze,
Darts at the flash, or, hung in hovering poise,
Delighted hears the music of the roar.
Nor does the wintry blast, the drifting fall,
Shrouded in night, and, with a death-hand grasp,
Benumbing life, drive her to seek the roof
Of cave, or hollow cliff; firm on her perch,
Her ancient and accustomed rock, she sits, [light,
With wing-couched head, and, to the morning
Appears a frost-rent fragment, coped with snow.
pp. 81-84.

Hints for the Security of the Established Church, humbly addressed to his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury. 8vo. pp. 39, price 1s. Hatchard 1806.

A title so modest induced us to open this pamphlet with great expectations, as the subject is confessedly interesting; but we were rather startled at the idea, in the very first paragraph, of the Archbishop of Canterbury having a "fair prospect" of "the crown of martyrdom," or of "witnessing the annihilation of his high "dignity." It is possible that the tremor into which we were thrown might accompany our perusal of the whole tract; nevertheless, we hope to make a fair report of its contents.

Happily, we are not guilty of the sin of Methodism, but if we were, we cannot so highly compliment the pamphlets which have lately appeared in opposition to this sin, as to think they would have effected our conversion. One reverend Gentleman, in addressing his parishioners, told them in the first page, that he did not properly understand the characters of the persons he was about to describe. Whether our perusal extended to the second page, is a secret which we keep to ourselves. Another, did not so much as know that there were distinct classes or communities of methodists; and he attributed to those of one distinction what was true exclusively of those of another; what could we infer from this ignorance? and indeed we cannot acquit from this mistake the writer before us, who appears to be by much the best informed of any we have lately noticed. He says, p. 36, "In the ordinary

" Methodist societies, the calamities of " the *Calvinistic* doctrines are generally " prevalent."—" In the Chapels, where " the liturgy of the church is used, but " without episcopal sanction, *Calvinism* " again is usually taught." But does he not know that the *Arminian* Methodists abhor these doctrines? that they insist on the Arminian interpretation of the Articles of the Church, as the only true and proper sense of them? and that against these very Arminians the principal portion of his reasonings is levelled?

The increase of Methodists is the subject of this work, and the author speaks no more than truth when he says,

> The subject unto which I thus presume to solicit a candid attention, is one on which I had the honour of frequent conversation with your amiable, conscientious, and vigilant predecessor. I am competent to say that it engaged much of his anxious attention, although principally at a time when declining age, and increasing infirmities, rendered him less able to engage in the rising contest. But he saw the growing evil, and sorely dreaded the probable effect. I thus introduce his respected name to notice further, that I understood from him, that a resolution had in some measure, been adopted, even in concurrence with some of the most respectable of the dissenters, to propose certain regulations of the Toleration Act, which might check that spirit of indiscriminate schism which now threatens, not merely the establishment, but even religion itself; but that it was deemed adviseable to pave the way by an act, which should enable the Bishops to silence one prevailing argument in favour of separation, by enforcing the stricter residence of the parochial clergy: thereby not only securing to the people vigilant pastors of their own communion, but probably excluding also intruders on their flocks. pp. 4, 5.

The writer might have added, that a conversation, perhaps several, to the effect he states, took place at Lambeth Palace, between the then Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishop of London, the Bishop of Chester, (we believe) and the Rev. John Martin, an Anabaptist teacher of note, facetiously termed *Bishop* Martin: in which the difficulty of conducting operations without trenching on the Toleration Act, was largely discussed. This is the very difficulty which embarrasses our author, who " conceives from the spirit of " the act (although it is certainly not " clearly expressed in the letter) that it " exacts a limitation of the services of the " teacher to his appropriate congrega- " tion." He might have known that the Dissenters not long since, very good-naturedly, published the opinion of a council among themselves, expressly taken on this point, which restricted the protection of the act to stationary ministers.

Our readers are at liberty to infer, that we are not quite so much frightened as this worthy writer; nor is the danger of the Church, from this cause, so apparent to us, as it is to him. We hope that his Grace of Canterbury will long wear his head on his shoulders, undismayed by the fear of martyrdom, or of the " annihilation" of his metropolitical dignity.

But we agree with some things here stated, and heartily wish they could be corrected.

> I recollect, not very long since, an instance of a conscientious member of the House of Commons, complaining of the hardship he had experienced, in the discharge of his duty as a magistrate, that when a youth of eighteen presented himself at the sessions, to qualify as a teacher of a congregation of Protestant dissenters, and complied with the stipulated conditions, he was obliged to sanction and authorise the presumption of so unqualified a pretender. What would the same respectable character have said, had one presented himself for this office, who could neither read nor write; who was obliged to substitute his mark for his subscription? Yet such things have been. pp. 25, 26.

We once heard a very worthy dissenting minister relate, that when he was licensed, a party who took advantage of the same privilege, could barely read; and that our informant assisted him in *spelling his own name*; to the great (but bitter) amusement of the Justices, and of the whole Court.

The following is too correct a picture of a serious evil.

> I allude to the case, wherein a minister in episcopal orders (and who has consequently on his oath promised canonical obedience), officiates in a congregation, licensed under the Toleration act, according to the liturgy of the Church of England. Here is evidently a schism without a motive; dissent, from a mere love of dissent; dissent, if I may so speak, without dissent. It arises perhaps, in the first instance, only from a plausible speculation; from the spirit, which has too much prevailed of late, of making a traffic of religion. But it cannot be allowed innoxious in itself: it is, moreover, of an excessively

evil tendency; for, more than any other case, it brings the Church itself into disgrace: in a word, it is positive schism.

I much fear, that no inconsiderable countenance has been given to these irregularities, by certain practices of a similar nature, which have recently been tolerated in the establishment itself. It is much to be lamented, that they should have been sanctioned by something like necessity; or rather is it to be lamented, that the existing evils were not remedied in a less objectionable manner. To the great number of private chapels in the metropolis is to be imputed the great increase of dissenting meeting-houses; for so radically evil are their construction and establishment, that they tend only to disgust the serious rich, and expel the poor. It is a subject only for private speculation; and as the rich alone can pay, to them only is accommodation offered. But it is an horrid subject for speculation. If the minister engages in it himself, he too commonly accommodates his doctrines to his audience; seeking to please rather than to instruct, his motives are apt to be suspected, and very little utility can be expected from his ministry. If, on the other hand, he be merely engaged by the proprietor, he is commonly sought out, not for sterling qualifications, so much as for popular manners and an airy elocution; as is sufficiently proved by the vapid characters which commonly occupy such situations. But the most weighty objection to these establishments is, that they are fashionable religious assemblies for the rich. The poor are excluded: and it is no less lamentable, that, in a considerable part of the metropolis, and in some other large towns, the middling and lower classes have no accommodation whatever for religious worship. They are thus driven to the conventicle. It is even to be wished that they should go there, for better is it they should so engage in the duties of religion, than not to do it at all. pp. 32—34.

It apears then that a once striking mark of Christianity, is now reversed, and "the poor have *not* the Gospel "preached unto them." Why then, what hold have we on the consciences of the poor? what should imbue them with virtue? what should render them comfortable? The *impolicy* of this neglect is so obvious and gross, that we agree with our author in thinking it is to be wished that this class should worship where it can. As bishop Horsley has observed, speaking of the omission of religious services on Sunday afternoons, "the worser part "of those who were at Church in the "morning, go now to the ale-house; "the better part to the conventicle." We add a note from the Bishop of London's Lect. viii. Vol. I. p. 205.

"There is a most dreadful want of this nature in the western part of this great metropolis. From St. Martin's in the Fields to Mary-le-Bone church, inclusive, a space containing, perhaps, 200,000 souls, there are only five parish churches, St. Martin's; St. Ann's, Soho; St. George's, Hanover Square; and the very small church at Mary-le-Bone. There are, it is true, a few chapels interspersed in this space; but what they can contain is a mere trifle, compared to the whole number of inhabitants in those parts; and the lowest classes are almost entirely excluded from them. The only measure that can be of any essential service, is the erection of several spacious parish churches, capable of receiving very large congregations, and affording decent accommodations for the lower and inferior, as well as for the higher orders of the people. In the reign of Queen Anne, a considerable sum of money was voted by parliament for fifty new churches. It is most devoutly to be wished that the present parliament would, to a certain extent at least, follow so honourable an example. It is, I am sure, in every point of view, political, moral, and religious, well worthy the attention of the British legislature. A sufficient number of new parish churches, erected both in the capital and in other parts of the kingdom, where they are wanted, for the use of the members of the Church of England of all conditions, would very essentially conduce to the interests of Religion, and the security and welfare of the Established Church."

The semi-official sentiments of this pamphlet have induced us to consider it with attention: we have hinted at some of its errors with candour, meaning that our remarks should be of use in proper time and place. Some of its observations we have readily strengthened, and enforced; they accord with our own remarks, and we heartily wish them effectual success.

But there is another cause of danger to the Church, which this author has not noticed; we mean INGRATITUDE: for what can be more ungrateful than to suffer a man to starve on a pitiful income of 6 or 700*l.* per annum who understands Divinity better than all who ever went before him, and whose talents, did people but credit them, would relieve our belief from such a variety of *heavy* articles, that he must truly be a most unreasonable Atheist, Deist, Socinian, Arian, Mahometan, Jew, or Pagan, who could possibly stumble at those which would re-

main; Can any thing be more detrimental than the supineness of the Rev. Dr. W. Gretton, Archdeacon of Essex, in not recommending Francis Stone, M. A. F. A. S. Rector of Cold Norton, to competent exaltation! We freely acknowledge, that we discover so many *cardinal* virtues, and so great predominance of them, such as modesty, humility, deference to superiors, candour, readiness to learn, abhorrence of filthy lucre, and a multiplicity of others, in a single sermon, that we see not how any parish, or any Church, can be justified in monopolizing the author! such a genius was born for the world! And our superiors must give us leave to add, though we are far from wishing to incur their resentment, that till they can treat such merit with proper attention, we are not likely to be the only readers of this discourse, who are *one whole sermon* nearer to the conventicle, or to methodism, than ever they supposed themselves capable of being.

Jewish Prophecy the Sole Criterion to distinguish between genuine and spurious Christian Scripture, &c. A discourse preached before the Rev. Dr. W. Gretton, Archdeacon of Essex, at Danbury, July 8, 1806; by Francis Stone, M. A. F. S. A. Rector of Cold Norton, Essex.

By the favour of Archidiaconal appointment, I am nominated—p. 3.

This genealogy (Luke) is surely very oddly placed, as well as most abruptly introduced. St. Luke, we know, was the friend and companion of St. Paul; and what St. Paul's opinion was about *such* genealogies we learn very clearly from his epistles, 1 Tim. i. 4. Titus iii. 9. This makes it highly improbable, that any of his intimates should attempt to trace out any genealogy at all.—p. 6.

But to proceed—to establish the strict, literal, and only humanity of Jesus, p. 7, in submitting to your serious consideration, a very grand imposture practised on Christians, to the extent of the two first chapters of Matthew's Gospel, which abound with misapplications and misrepresentations of propheeies. p. 12.

This gives birth to what, in their hyper-metaphysical dialect, they term the hypostatic union, asserting that in Christ two natures were united, the divine and the human. p. 21.

I have been the more particular in exposing the forged miracle, because it gives birth to that absurd hypothesis, the Arian trinity, which ended in the establishment of that most senseless doctrine of human invention, the Athanasian trinity in unity. p. 27. That monster of error and absurdity. p. 31.

I mean the mistaken idea, too generally received, of the atonement of divine wrath, by —the death of Christ. p. 32.

Let us divest ourselves of a misplaced attachment to the erroneous theology and fabulous theogony, of the middle of the 16th century. p. 36.

☞ *Antiquated errors of the Church of England: extracted from the Articles, published by Authority; repeatedly signed by every Clergyman, before he can hold a living: and constantly alluded to in the daily Prayers of the Establishment.——To be abolished.*

Almighty God, our heavenly father, who hast purchased to thyself an universal church by the precious blood of thy dear son; mercifully look upon the same; and at this time so guide and govern the minds of thy servants, the bishops and pastors of thy flock, that they may lay hands suddenly on no man, but faithfully and wisely make choice of fit persons to serve in the sacred ministry of thy church. And to those which shall be ordained to any holy function, give thy grace and heavenly benediction; that both by their life and doctrine they may set forth thy glory, and set forward the salvation of all men, through Jesus Christ our Lord, amen.

So that two whole and perfect natures, that is to say, the God-head and man-hood, were joined together in one person never to be divided; whereof is one Christ. Art. 2.

The three creeds, *Nice* creed, *Athanasius's* creed, and that which is commonly called the *Apostle's creed*, ought thoroughly to be received and believed: for they may be proved by most certain warrants of holy scripture. Art. 8.

Christ who truly suffered, was crucified, dead, and buried, to reconcile his father to us.—Art. 2. And there is none other satisfaction for sin but that alone. Art. 31.

The book of consecration of archbishops, and bishops, of priests, and deacons, hath not any thing that of itself is superstitious, or ungodly. Art. 36.

A Treatise on the Teeth of Wheels, Pinions, &c. demonstrating the best forms which can be given them for the various purposes of Machinery; such as Mill-work, Clock-work, &c. and the art of finding their numbers: translated from the French of M. Camus, with additions; illustrated by 15 plates, 144 pp. Price 10s. 6d. J. Taylor, 1806.

The work before us is a translation of Books x. and xi. of the second edition of M. Camus's *Cours de Mathématique*, printed in 1767, in which the divisions of the original work are very properly retained for the use of those who may wish to consult it. The preface informs us that M. Camus not having treated the generation of cycloid and epicycloid curves, and their practical application to the Teeth of Wheels, &c. the same is now fully done by an extract from the new edition of Imison's Elements of Science and Art; this follows in nine pages; two pages more are added, (by the writer in Imison,) as an answer to Mr. Brewster's animadversions in his late edition of Ferguson's Lectures, on this part of Imison's work; these constitute the additions noticed in the title. Few subjects have been more generally misunderstood, than the effect of cycloidal and epycycloidal curves when applied to the Teeth of Wheels. It has too generally been imagined, from the generation of these curves by a *rolling motion*, we suppose, that, when applied to the teeth of wheels, they occasioned them to *roll*, instead of *slide* or *rub*, upon each other; thereby avoiding wear of the machine, and loss of power in friction between the teeth. But M. Camus, in the work before us (like Emerson and English mathematical writers in general, whom we remember to have read) has expressly employed himself on a different problem, viz. to discover that form for the teeth of Wheels and Pinions, which shall enable the one to drive or move the other with a uniform angular velocity, if its own be such. We well know that teeth, improperly formed, will occasion a wheel moving uniformly round, to drive its pinion with an alternately accelerated and retarded motion, to the hindrance of many operations required to be performed by machinery, and destructive in its jerking effect upon the machinery itself. Different modifications of the cycloidal and epicycloidal curves have been found to effect in every case an equable motion between two wheels acting on each other; to which M. Camus (page 2, 10, 21, and 57) limits the properties of the teeth he recommends; while at page 59 he expressly states, that teeth thus formed will *rub* or *slide against*, instead of *rolling upon*, each other. Dr. Young, in his Syllabus of Lectures at the Royal Institution, Art. 180, says, "it appears to be impossible to produce an equable motion, and at the same time wholly to avoid friction, although some of the best authors have supposed, that both these objects were attained by the epicycloidal teeth." In a note upon this, the Doctor investigates the quantity of sliding or rubbing reciprocally sustained by these teeth for equalizing motion. This statement shews the increase of this effect, as the teeth are larger, or their action extends beyond the line of the centres. But, to our great surprise, this extract from Imison asserts, that wear, or loss of power by friction, is avoided, by using cycloidal or epicycloidal teeth in different cases; while in other essential parts of the theory, these additions are directly at variance with the conclusions of M. Camus. We conceive it, therefore, necessary to examine more particularly, the pretensions of the writer in Imison; first remarking that M. Camus, in art. 536, figs. 178 and 179, has given as good a description, or generation, of an epicycloid as can be written; while the passage from Imison intended to mend it, (page vii.) is an unmeaning jargon of indefinite words. Its inconsistency further appears in page viii. line 17 and 26, where the *diameter* and the *radius* of circles are confounded with their *arcs*; and page xii. line 13, where the term cycloid is applied to the curve, called by all mathematicians the involute of a circle!

An attentive reader of M. Camus will readily perceive, that for producing equable motion, the acting faces of the teeth of wheels and pinions, intended to act *before and after* they have passed the line of centres, must each consist of two portions of different epicycloids, joined at the pitch-line; the inner part of the pinion's teeth (or so much thereof as is within the pitch-line) may conform to the interior epicycloid, derived from the rolling of any circle on the concave arc of the pinion, or its pitch-line; and the outer part of the wheel's teeth must be formed by the ex-

terior epicycloid, described by the rolling of the same circle on the convex arc of the wheel (art. 541, fig. 182). The inner part of the wheel's teeth may in like manner be fashioned to the interior epicycloid formed by the rolling of any circle on the concave arc of the wheel, and the outer part of the pinion's teeth must be formed by the exterior epicycloid, described by the rolling of the same circle on the convex arc of the pinion. It is proved, that teeth of this shape, will always touch their common tangent in the point of contact; a perpendicular to which will constantly cut the line of the centres in the point of contact of the wheel and pinion, which is shewn (arts. 525 and 535) to be essential to a wheel driving a pinion equably; or *vice versa*.

It is true, and consistent with the above, that if the inner part of the pinion's teeth, and the outer part of the wheel's teeth, or the inner part of the wheel's teeth and the outer part of the pinion's teeth, be derived from the rolling of different circles instead of the same, as recommended in this extract from Imison, in all the cases considered by Emerson (8vo. Mechanics, probs. 23 and 25) and in art. 545 of Camus, yet still the intersection of those curves (for they can rarely touch) or the action of either of those curves on a point, in the circumference of the other wheel (or pinion) would produce equable motion, but this cannot be considered as favourable for avoiding friction, or practicable with teeth of the common construction, requiring in some cases hooked teeth, as Emerson has shewn, page 197, fig. 156, in order to produce equable motion; for want of attention to this distinction, Doctor Hutton (Math. Dict. II. 564) has represented Emerson and Camus as differing on a point wherein they are perfectly agreed.

It has been shewn (Camus, art. 538), that if the rolling or generating circle, in the first of the above cases, be assumed equal in diameter to the radius of the pinion, and in the latter case to the radius of the wheel, that the interior epicycloids in each case will be converted into straight or radial lines, and hence neither the wheel or pinion's teeth need be curved in their inner parts, but the radial within the pitch-lines, provided the outer part of the pinion's teeth be described by the rolling of a circle half as much in diameter as the wheel; and the outer part of the wheel's teeth by a circle half the diameter of that of the pinion. Vide Camus, fig. 171, also Dr. Young's Syllabus, p. 49. Where the number of curves or teeth in a pinion amount to nine or more, (art. 552 and 553), they can be driven, without being touched by the teeth of the wheel (if sufficiently large) till after they arrive at the line of centres, of course the outer or epicycloidal part of the pinion's teeth here becomes unnecessary, and radial lines (having rounded ends, without the pitch-line, to avoid the accidents to which sharp corners might be liable, art. 554) answer the purpose of equable motion, as in figs. 191 to 194 of Camus. Under the like restriction, as to the numbers of teeth on the pinion and wheel, if the wheel's teeth are only to act before they arrive at the line of centres, their outer parts may be omitted, and straight teeth with rounded ends adopted for the wheel, as mentioned by Mr. Brewster, Ferg. Lect. IV. 217.

It must be plain from the above, that wheels and pinions constructed as Imison recommends, with teeth acting on each other, whose epicycloids are described by the rolling of an equal circle to the other respectively (being the same which Camus, Emerson, and others have recommended for acting on points, instead of the surfaces of teeth) cannot produce equable motion. We have no evidence offered by the writer in Imison, that friction is considerably reduced, much less avoided altogether, by the form of teeth which he recommends, except (page viii.) where it is said, that mills on a very large scale have been so constructed, "the wheel works of which have been in use for more than seven years without requiring any repairs," a circumstance which few persons acquainted with good wheel-work will deem extraordinary, or uncommonly favourable to that particular form of teeth. These remarks further say, "His (Mr. Brewster's) additions are by no means applicable to our present improved practice; for it is a fact, that the epicycloidal faces of the teeth of wheels and pinions ought not to act upon each other, but reciprocally upon those parts which are made radii, to produce their most beneficial effects. None of the examples given by Mr B. however possess these advantages." Now it happens that Mr. Brewster, in pages 211 and 217, fig 3, plate II. and fig. 2, plate III. expressly de-

scribes and recommends plain or radial teeth for the pinion, and for the wheel also, in different cases; and that Brewster is consistent throughout with the deductions of Camus, before us, except in one unguarded expression in page 215, wherein he says (and we are sorry to find it copied into Gregory's Mechanics) that epicycloidal teeth will act upon each other "without friction, the one tooth rolls upon the other;" for which position, not one argument or proof is adduced, but, on the contrary, his two following pages are employed on expedients for lessening the friction occasioned by the use of such teeth.

The directions from Imison (page x) for the form of a lifting-cog, cam, or wiper, is in every respect improper for lifting a forge hammer; it will neither elevate it equally (owing to the generating circle being twice the proper size for that purpose) nor with the duly decelerated motion, in order to its being rebounded by the strong spring provided over it for that purpose, as Mr. Brewster has remarked in page 250; while this, as well as Imison's lifters for stampers, are liable to the more serious objection, of requiring large masses of matter to start at once into their full motion, instead of beginning the same progressively from a state of rest (as in the action of a common crank) which would not fail of soon shaking any machine to pieces; as Gregory has well observed, Mechanics, II. 264.

The importance of a correct theory in the construction of mechanical instruments must vindicate our intention in these remarks, and our judgment in allotting them the space they occupy in our pages. We are indeed very desirous of distinguishing the additions, prefixed, not only unnecessarily but unwisely to M. Camus's work, from the work itself; which is extremely respectable and correct, and manifests great ability in its author. We proceed now to mention briefly the remaining subjects of which it treats.

At pages 38 and 68 the proper length of the teeth of wheels is considered, and at page 54 the space between them, necessary for their easy working together. At page 59 we have the additional friction between bodies, not perfectly hard, when shoved along, instead of being drawn over each other, adduced as a reason why wheels ought to drive each other, by acting after passing the line of centres, when the teeth are sliding out of each other, instead of sliding in, as in this action before the line of centres; and the proportionate number of teeth is investigated (page 60) so that their action may take place after passing the line of centres. The plates of the teeth of wheels are said (page 70) to be accurately drawn, that clock and watch-makers may imitate them by the eye, in finishing the teeth of wheels, too small to be set out as these have been. The nature of spherical epicycloids, or those formed by a point fixed in the convex surface of a right cone, the summit of which cone is affixed to that of another right cone, on which the first cone rolls, are considered; and the same are applied (page 76) to determine the proper form of the teeth of crown-wheels and trundles, or crown-wheels and pinions, (page 89); the same being applicable to bevelled-wheels, which were probably not in use in our author's time. The last chapter is upon calculating the trains of clocks, orrerys, or other machines, with a number of wheels; among the examples, the calculations of which are given at length, is that of the train proper for a clock to beat seconds and carry wheels, on whose arbors three hands can be placed, for seconds, minutes, and hours, without any unnecessary wheels; for an astronomical clock, of which the great wheel shall revolve in a mean year, within 1″ 14‴ of the truth, when worked from the hour-wheel of a correct clock; and, for another to revolve in the mean synodical revolution of the moon within less than 15‴, worked from the minute-wheel of a clock: the application of diophantine or indeterminate algebraical processes to all these kinds of questions is well explained. We confidently recommend this translation of M. Camus's work to the English Mechanic, who cannot fail of profiting by the correct information which it conveys, and which circumstance made it the more necessary, for us to point out the errors of the additions which are here made to it.

Géographie de Strabon, &c. — Strabo's Geography, translated from Greek into French. Tom. I. 4to. pp. 513, with five Maps. Paris, from the Imperial Press. 1805.

We hope that at some time, not far distant, British literature may boast of its Strabo. Report says, that after the lapse

of almost half a century, we may expect the Greek text from a British University; and one of our literati is mentioned as having advanced considerably an English translation of this antient geographer. We must, then wait, whether patiently or impatiently, till such a work appears among us; in the mean time, it is our duty to report those editions of this celebrated classic which are produced by the learned on the Continent.

The Geography of Strabo comprises almost all the history of science from Homer to the age of Augustus: it marks the origin of nations, and their migrations; the founding of cities, the establishment of empires and states, the histories of eminent persons; and includes an immense collection of events which in vain may be sought elsewhere. The French Government interested itself in forwarding this publication: the minister of the interior committed the undertaking to M. de la Porte du Theil and M. Coray, whose labours have presented us in the present volume with the three first books of their author.

Besides the translation, a large body of notes critical and grammatical annexed, is an honourable evidence of their erudition and sagacity.

A translation of Strabo, designed to be truly useful, requires many geographical elucidations. This department was assigned to M. Gossellin, a well-known *savant* in ancient geography. The introduction is also by this gentleman.

The state of Strabo's text, the ambiguity of some of his descriptions or expressions, and the diversity of subjects which he treats, render a concise, yet accurate, version extremely difficult. This difficulty is peculiarly felt, when terms or sentiments refer to ancient philosophical opinions, now utterly unknown and inconceivable, or to historical incidents not allied to any other from which assistance might be derived, or to physical and mathematical *data*, which perhaps the writer himself but slightly understood.

The learned authors announce, in addition to their notes on these and other subjects, geographical, historical, and biographical, prolegomena, including a life of Strabo himself; with notices of the principal editions, MSS. and other authorities which they have consulted. In the introduction, M. Gossellin offers general and preliminary observations on the manner of estimating the ancient road stadia: he explains the errors which have arisen from miscalculations of these measures; and supposes that stadia of different lengths were adopted in different countries. There were stadia of 700 to a degree, others 1111 1-3; others 666 2-3; others 500; others 833 1-3 to a degree, each of which is treated by M. G. in distinct chapters. In short, this gentleman supposes that, as the length of *leagues* and *miles* differs in various parts of Europe, yet these names are still retained; so, antiently, the stadium was not uniformly the same, and to this diversity he ascribes those obvious contradictions which occur in ancient writers, and the difficulty experienced by the moderns in verifying the distances they mention between one place and another.

M. Gossellin, by applying different stadia, as circumstances determine, has brought many intervals of distance within a little of those expressed by the historians, and other writers of antiquity.

The Romans borrowed the stadia, with their geography, from the Greeks, but without distinguishing those used by Eratosthenes and Hipparchus, from those adopted in the Olympic games; and by their erroneous methods of rendering them into Latin, says M. G., they have deprived them of intelligibility. This he shews in several undeniable instances.

After having ascertained the respective proportions of these measures, and detected the sources of many errors, from the days of the Alexandrian school to our own, the learned investigator states the manner in which they ought to be applied, and shews their importance in our endeavours to understand many intricate passages of Strabo. He next reduces the ancient measures to modern; and explains the use of sixteen schemes, annexed to this introduction, which explain the relation of measures of length in Greek stadia and Roman miles.

Scheme 1. shews the relative proportions of the six kinds of stadia already mentioned. 2. The proportions of degrees, minutes, and seconds of a great circle to the foregoing stadia. 3. Proportion of these stadia to marine leagues, twenty to a degree. 4. Stadia in fathoms, feet and inches; also stadia in Roman miles; Roman miles in feet and inches,

&c. &c. M. G. has also adopted those measures to a degree of longitude, in the parallel of lat. 30°. Six hundred Roman miles, in the opinion of Pliny, were equal to 4,800 Olympic stadia; which gives in longitude in this parallel, 9°. 53'. 18". These tables are useful in assigning distances where none are mentioned by antient writers. The last six plates of this series contain more extensive distances, on the respective stadia ascertained by our author, and which he proves to have been acknowledged by the Greeks themselves, as employed among them by their astronomers, geographers, and travellers.

By means of this method M. Gosselin demonstrates, that the major part of the distances transmitted to us by the writers of Greece and Rome, far from being so erroneous as they have usually been thought, are, on the contrary, sufficiently coincident with the present state of our geographical knowledge. He infers also, that hereby we may rectify numerous passages in ancient writers, which hitherto have been considered as altogether mistaken, or corrupted, or entangled with inextricable difficulties. "If it were possible," adds M. G., "that my method should be complained of as too favourable to the ancients, I would answer, that the rules of criticism imperiously demand, on every occasion, such an interpretation of these authors, as places their intention, and the sense of their words, in the most favourable point of view; and that in geography, when a measure is exact, or nearly exact, to whatever standard it may be referred, we are not allowed to fancy that it is an error."

Our readers will appreciate the validity of these remarks: we fear that while we vindicate ancient writers from one defect, we attribute to them another, and perhaps a worse, we mean that confusion to which they must have been aware they subjected their readers, by omitting to determine to what stadia they referred. We fear, too, that by similar adoptions of convenient scales of measurement, we may make any thing of any thing.

After these tables M. G. places illustrations of the different points attributed to the winds among the ancients; accompanied by what we may call the compass-card of the Romans, compared with the compass card of the moderns.

This volume is ornamented and elucidated by five geographical charts, constructed by M. Gossellin, shewing, 1. the geographical system of Eratosthenes; 2. the geographical system of Hipparchus; 3. the Mediterranean sea, according to Polybius; 4, the Northern Hemisphere, according to the Hypothesis of Strabo; 5. the geographical system of Strabo.

The typographical execution of this volume is entitled to great applause. We do not find that the translation has hitherto been subjected to any close or critical examination, but we doubt not that it may be considered as of great utility in the study of ancient geography and statistics.

Le Danger des mauvais Livres, &c.— The Danger of bad Books, a Sermon on Rev. x. 10. 8vo. pp. 44. Geneva, Bonnant, 1806.

THE subject of this discourse in the present state of society is distinguished by its importance: much mischief has been done by bad books; and in no instance, unhappily for mortals, is the maxim that "evil communications corrupt good manners," more completely justified. The general spread of instruction in reading among us; the infinite number of opportunities for gratifying that inquisitive disposition which is interwoven in human nature, and of which books are the object; the readiness of concealment which attends smaller works; the facility of lending and borrowing, with the gratification of perusal enhanced by secrecy: these and many other circumstances sufficiently known, render the circulation of bad books extremely dangerous to individuals, and equally pernicious to the state.

We include in this description whatever is contrary to religion and good morals, to the prosperity of the commonwealth, to loyalty, to liberty, to public tranquillity, to peace among individuals, to personal security, and, we may add, to personal enjoyment. Writings which, by affecting undue seriousness, slide into austerity; which produce melancholy, even from the very principles and radices of chearfulness; which propagate discontent, peevishness, moroseness, distraction of mind, misanthropy, under whatever appellations they may be disguised, are, in our opinion, little less censurable than those more obviously criminal performances,

which promote levity, frivolity, indifference to important objects, dislike to reflection, inconsideration, alienation of mind from the duties of a person's station, and that ruinous perversion of sentiment, which when it is once effectually rooted in the heart, resists the efforts of reason and nature, of affection, prudence, patriotism, and even of piety itself.

To all these kinds of books, though not intended in the present discourse, the character may be attributed which distinguished that described in the text adopted by the worthy author: "sweet as honey in the mouth, but bitter as gall when received into the stomach." The discourse opens with the following apostrophe.

"MEDICINES FOR THE SOUL! Such was the expressive inscription which a king of Egypt placed over the door of his library. It belongs, no doubt, to well selected books; but, alas, how many of those which appear in our days would be more aptly described as *poisons!*" Those of this poisonous class M. Cellerier, the preacher, treats with the severity they deserve; and, what must have been uncommonly gratifying to himself, his persuasions were attended with the happiest success; for we learn from credible authority, that the Committee of Subscribers to the institution for the instruction of Catecumens in Geneva, in consequence of this discourse, took measures, though attended with considerable expense, to prevent the circulation of dangerous books, by remonstrating with those who trafficked in them, and by inducing these traders to relinquish their profits, and give up their disgraceful commodities that they might be committed to the flames. Many dealers in such trash, and many who lent them out to read, many young persons, and some parents, of their own accord, brought out and destroyed whatever they could discover of a like kind: an acceptable sacrifice to piety! a happy result of their pastor's admonitions to "imitate those generous christians of Ephesus, who, touched by grace, burnt at the feet of the Apostles those pernicious books which they had formerly prized!" "Go, go," says he, "at your departure from this sacred place, deliver up whatever of this nature you may happen to possess to those who watch for your souls! and thus fulfil ye their joy!"

Collection des Ecrits de Gustave III. Roi de Suède, &c.—Collection of the political, literary, and dramatical Writings of Gustavus III. King of Sweden: to which is annexed his Correspondence, &c. 4 vol. 8vo. Stockholm.

Unquestionably in the strict rules of criticism, the intrinsic merit of a work ought to be the sole object of consideration; yet, from immemorial prescription, candid critics have been indulged in occasional deviations from so narrow a path. We shall plead the privilege, while we gratify our feelings, and we trust those of our readers, by paying a scanty but sincere tribute to the memory of the royal author of the volumes before us. The works of crowned heads will not come every day under our cognizance; and when they do, we may safely be allowed to speak favourably of a deceased sovereign.

Few thrones have been graced with more dazzling virtue than that of Sweden. Nature in those hardy climes seems to have cast the souls of kings in her noblest mould. The still increasing wreath of glory has been transmitted with the diadem through a succession of heroes, from Gustavus Vasa who emerged from the dungeons of Denmark, and from the mines of Dalecarlia, to free his country from a foreign yoke, to the present dauntless monarch, who stands erect and unappalled amidst the crush of empires. In this honourable list we find the name of Gustavus III. worthy of such predecessors and worthy of such a descendant; he too freed his country, if not from foreign bondage, yet from foreign influence, and from domestic factions equally baneful, and equally opposite to true liberty. He fell, at length, by the blow of an assassin; a royal victim to the sanguinary tyrants of Europe! The achievements of the *king* belong to history; the work before us, with which only we are concerned, unfolds the *man*.

As a man of letters Gustavus would have been eminent had he ranked among ordinary citizens; for, to its merit alone must be attributed the adjudication of a prize by the Academy of Stockholm, to an essay which he had composed. It appears that no suspicion was entertained of the real author, till after a length of time the non-claimance of the prize induced a conjec-

ture as to the honour conferred on the institution.

The subjects chosen by a writer of eminent station, should correspond, not distantly, with the rank of the author! and, though another poet might have composed an Opera equal in merit with the Gustavus Vasa, or Gustavus Adolphus of our royal bard, yet we own, that there is a something of peculiar interest, in the character of the Swedish hero, as delineated by his descendant. It admits us in some degree into the recesses of the royal mind while composing it, and opens the reflections of a king, on the actions of a venerated ancestor, and on the characters of his contemporaries. It is easy to combine in the favourite hero of a piece, every virtue under heaven, but to do justice to his opponents, to lighten the deep shades in which national animosity, or personal enmity has enveloped them is to triumph over a partiality not only natural, but predominant in the human mind.

Inasmuch then, as a clear view of truth, and an unbiassed acknowledgment of excellencies of whatever kind, in a foe, is a more difficult task to a king than to any of his subjects, in the same proportion are the labours of a sovereign intitled to more than ordinary candour, and what would be only a middling effort, of genius or of virtue, in another, is in him a very fair subject of praise, and to be accepted with the most cordial marks of esteem.

The volumes which compose this collection have been published successively; the first three have been some time before the public; they chiefly comprise the literary productions of Gustavus, the elegant recreations of a refined and enlightened mind. The drama seems to have been his favourite amusement: but his Discourses to the Senate, are at least equally unequivocal marks of a liberal and vigorous understanding. The third volume was published in 1804; consequently before the period included in our Review. It contains merely a continuation of the *Amusemens Dramatiques* of this royal literato; and exhibits his conceptions of characters in various conditions of life. They are mostly founded on history or tradition, and have, usually, a strong reference to Swedish manners. They have merit; but may rather please an English reader, than an English audience. The fourth volume, which has but lately appeared, contains his Correspondence.

Most collections of Posthumous works are liable to the imputation of lessening eminent men in public opinion, but in the correspondence of Gustavus, however various the situations in which he appears, we alternately love and admire the loyal subject, the affectionate son, the good father, the warm and faithful friend, the firm and enlightened statesman, the undaunted warrior, and the generous constitutional king, at once solicitous for the welfare of his people, and conscious of their liberties. Severe censors may affect to be offended at the playfulness which Gustavus not unfrequently indulges; and, perhaps may denote it by the harsher appellation of levity. Some levities mark condescension; others denote malice: we cannot so much as suppose the latter in Gustavus, and why should the rigid etiquette of public ceremony controul the freedom of private correspondence?

The following extracts will explain the sentiments we mean to convey, much more forcibly than any expressions of our own.

Extract of a letter from the Prince Royal Gustavus, to the Court Chancellor Baron de Bunge, authorised by the States of the Kingdom to offer his Royal Highness a place in the Senate, with an effective vote.

Ekolsund, July 16, 1769.

I return the inclosed papers you had intrusted me with, and I feel that the sentiments you manifested towards my person, deserve from me the greatest sincerity. I know too well what every citizen owes to his country, especially when he has received those proofs of national affection which I have experienced, ever to shrink from any services within my power, and which as a Swede and as Prince, I more than any one am bound to perform. But wide is the difference between serving the country and governing it.

I have, it is true, the honour of being the first citizen in the state; but in that respectable situation, I am still a subject and a son: and I know the extent of the duties those relations impose on me, towards the best of masters, and the tenderest of fathers. The love of his subjects, the respect of all Europe, the unanimous assent of the nation to his will, all these are sufficient considerations to induce me to refuse a place I might have wished for at sixteen, but which I feel myself incapable of filling at three and twenty.

Such are, Sir, the first reflections which

have occurred to my mind, the following are founded on more solid grounds.

The senatorial dignity, which I should in a manner assume by accepting a vote in the senate, is in itself, and from its origin, the situation of first counsel to the King; by our constitution it is so, in name and in reality; but, to this duty of advising the king, is joined the power of enforcing such advices, and of prescribing to him such measures, as are approved by the majority. Would you think it fit, Sir, nay, would you think it consistent with that respect a son owes to his father, thus to assume the right of advising him, of tracing the line of conduct he is to follow, and of making my will in some measure a law for him?

If the king my father was weighed down by age or by infirmities, so as to be unable to attend to state affairs with that vigour and energy they require, I should then feel it my duty as a subject and a son to assist him with my advice. Or if the king, still at variance with the senate, had to maintain a painful struggle with that body, as he has done for a long time, I should then accept the prerogative offered me, and I would make use of it to maintain the independence of my country, its liberties, and the rights of my father. But those very reasons which would have induced me to accept in the last Diet the place I am now offered in the senate, urge me to refuse it at this period. I should then have been my father's support, I should now become his counsel: and this title has something too shocking for a son, when he does not receive it from the free will and unbiassed confidence of his father.

The day before the memorable revolution of 1772 which crushed the democratic spirit in Sweden, Gustavus wrote the following note to the Count de Vergennes, the French ambassador at his court.

Stockholm, August 18, 1772.

I request you will express to the king your master all my gratitude for the constant friendship I experience from him; tell him that tomorrow I hope to prove myself worthy of such a faithful friend; the justice of my cause and Divine Providence will assist me. But should I fall, I trust that his friendship will protect those I shall leave behind me; I trust that a brother whose courage and loyalty have shone so conspicuously, and those brave subjects, who should then have sacrificed every thing for their king and country, will not be abandoned by the most faithful and the most ancient ally of Sweden.

Nor was the revolution he happily effected, disgraced by any acts of private resentment; eleven years after that event Gustavus still harrassed by his restless subjects, expressed thus his generous feelings to his chancellor.

Ulricsdal, May 25, 1781.

Count de Wachtmeister.—I have received your three letters, the last of which is dated the 17th of May, from Motilla. I cannot sufficiently praise the prudence you have shewn. Pechlin is so dangerous a man, that we must have nothing to do with him till we have complete legal grounds to detain him effectively; and from what you report of him, I do not see that he is sufficiently guilty to lay himself open to a legal prosecution for high treason. I have once had this turbulent genius in my power, and had I said a word, his head would then have fallen at my feet; but, as I was so fortunate as to effect the revolution of 1772 without bloodshed, I thought it more consistent with that signal blessing, to release a man, who, however guilty towards me and my house, was then defenceless in my hands. I thought that it was only by such a conduct I could shew my gratitude to the Supreme Being, whose infinite goodness allowed me to save my country without imbruing my hands in blood. Since that time I have had the good fortune never to be driven to that dire necessity; and this has strengthened the resolution I have taken, never capitally to punish turbulent, or even criminal subjects, whatever may be the consequences. But this will not prevent me from using every means to put it out of their power to ruin themselves and the country, and to bring destruction on others.

Then follow the king's directions to watch narrowly the conduct of *Pechlin*, so as to prevent the possibility of his doing mischief, but not to make any attempt on his liberty. We do not think that a greater magnanimity, or a higher sense of honour, has ever been displayed than what is contained in the following letter. Gustavus was then at war with Russia; betrayed by not a few of his subjects, who kept up intelligence with the enemy: and he had been basely abandoned by part of his army. The letter is directed to Baron Stedingk, a general officer in the army then in Finland, and a trusty servant of Gustavus.

Kymenegard, August 15, 1788.

I have just received your two letters, and Count de *Ferfen* has got your packet. No! I never shall bend under the yoke of the Empress. All manner of negociation is now utterly impossible, but through the medium of a third court, and if I must fall, I had rather be crushed by my own subjects than by my enemies. I do not see that things are desperate. Nyslott must be kept as long as possible: as I

maintain my position in spite of every one. As to you, my dear Stedingk, you must not think of abandoning us; the only irretrievable fault is to despair of the safety of the country. If you leave Finland, it must be solely to bring us German troops, who know how to obey. Great states are not easily destroyed; and you will see that good will spring from our misfortunes. At all events honour commands to remain firm to the last, and then I shall say like Francis the First, *all is lost but honour.*

No sovereign ever took more pains than Gustavus to guard his country from that moral epidemy which spreads desolation through Europe. He had learnt, from the civil commotions of Sweden, how to appreciate those new fangled doctrines of anarchy, pompously decorated with the name of liberty. His sentiments on the French revolution are well known; and grievously has he atoned for his too great penetration. Some time before he had judiciously foreseen that the infection would be brought from America; and he thus expressed his sentiments to the same Baron de Stedingk, then in Paris, who had, rather unwittingly, accepted the order of *Cincinnatus.*

My ambassador has, of course, imparted to you my intentions, and I doubt not but you have complied with them, by immediately relinquishing the Cincinnatus badge which you never ought to have accepted. I have not been deceived by the denomination: the meaning not the word is to be minded. But whether this be a fellowship, or a military order, it is inconsistent with my interests and my wisdom, to allow my subjects, and especially men distinguished by their rank and by my private friendship, to wear, and to think themselves honoured by publicly displaying the trophies of a succesful rebellion of subjects against their legitimate sovereign; and particularly of a rebellion, the motives and aim of which were so unjust, and so groundless. I am well aware, that America is now regarded as an independent country, and is even my ally; but that success which has crowned the enterprise, can never justify it. We are, ourselves, too recently emerged from our troubles, to suppose that the latent seeds of our ancient animosities have been completely destroyed, and it is my duty to remove any object which can renew those ideas.

Proofs of Gustavus's warm attachment to his friends are abundantly scattered in all his letters; and no man seems to have felt more than he did that generous friendship, of which kings are too slightly supposed incapable; but these spontaneous effusions of the heart cannot well be separated from the concomitant circumstances which gave them rise. From one of his gayer epistles we have taken the following anecdotes, concerning Englishmen; and shall with them conclude this article.

We have here two Englishmen, who possess their full share of that eccentricity, which is held to be a national characteristic. One is the Earl of Effingham of the illustrious House of Howard, and first cousin to the Duke of Norfolk. He has astonished us a good deal, as well as his lady, whom you would never take for the wife of an English peer, from her dress and from her manners. She could not be presented at court, on account of the *etiquette* of ceremonial, and of her pretensions, which could not be granted. The other is the Earl of Baltimore; I have not seen him, but this is an original quite opposite to the other, for he will not go to court, where the other claims privileges. He was asked, if he intended to be presented? *Not I*, said he, *I have never seen a king, not even my own*: and he left this place two days after. He had six women in his train; and, I really believe, he took a seventh here.

Ex Plutarchi Operibus excerpta quæ ad artes spectant collegit, in capita digessit interpretatione Latina et adnotatione instruxit. J. F. Facius, Lipsiæ, 1805. 12mo.

We have long wished that men of learning would turn their attention, as the author before us has done, to those *particular* parts or subjects, of the writings of the ancients, which contain important information respecting the arts, the ingenuity, the commerce, and discoveries of the ancients. Examinations of the nature alluded to, by being directed to specific themes, would give more effective satisfaction in the course of their inquiries, than is practicable by general comments. M. Dutens, in his work on the Discoveries of the Ancients, by limiting his attention to certain objects of research made many interesting discoveries, and justified the claim of former ages to a variety of knowledge, never before attributed to them. We may add, that as every man of learning has usually his favourite author, it would be a service to the republic of letters if those passages for instance, in that author which contain the greatest portion of information, were selected and published, seperately. The assistance of professional men, in most parts of Europe,

would easily be obtained; and would contribute to illustrate not only the principles adopted by the ancients, but the modes of execution employed by them. Such treatises would also enable us more clearly to understand the terms used by ancient writers; so that letters and the arts would mutually assist each other. We are glad to see this idea acted upon by M. Facius in the work before us; and heartily wish it were directed to the illustration of other valuable writers. It would afford equal instruction and entertainment.

Next to Pliny and Pausanias, Plutarch is one of those authors who have left us most information on the arts among the ancients. Commentators have not always taken the trouble of explaining the passages which relate to them. Most have expatiated at uncommon length on points of literary or grammatical criticism, without reflecting that whatever relates to the arts, is no less connected with the history of manners and customs, than with that of the language. It is equally interesting and entertaining for a man of a cultivated mind, who wishes to read with advantage to be enabled with the aid of luminous explanations, to initiate himself as it were into the secrets of the ancients, to determine the origin of their inventions and discoveries, to follow them in their progress and improvement, to compare them with those of the moderns, and thus to enable himself to judge between them. But that which is a matter of mere amusement for a man of the world, not destitute of learning, becomes a necessary study for those who devote their lives to the instruction of others, and especially to the historian and antiquary. It follows, that without a knowledge of the processes of the arts, as without being acquainted with the words used to describe them, it is impossible to examine, or to explain in a suitable and satisfactory manner, the various monuments of antiquity which are in our possession.

M. Facius has divided his work into chapters, which seems to be the most natural and methodical division for a publication of this kind. He very properly begins by chusing those passages which give an idea of the arts, of their nature, of their distinguished rank and influence under the reign of a man of genius. Such is the object of his first chapter. The second chapter alludes to the different substances employed in the performance of the arts, and to the technical phrases, terms, and expressions used to denote the particular branch embraced by each artist. We read in the annotations to this chapter, that *the ancients rendered ivory as ductile as they did gold*, and that, *for this purpose they used a kind of beer called* Zythum, *which was thought to be wine made of barley in which they suffered the ivory to soak for a length of time:* they most likely mixed some powerful solvent with the liquor. Whatever relates to the *Plastic* art is detailed in the third chapter. The fourth is allotted to descriptions of the various representations of the *Egyptian Gods*. The author introduces some that appear very extraordinary. At Hermopolis Typhon was figured under the shape of a Hippopotamus, on the back of which a hawk is fighting a serpent: and at Sais, in the vestibule of the temple were different basso relievos representing Osiris as a child, an old man, a hawk, a fish, and a hippopotamus.

The most celebrated statuaries and *their works* are mentioned in the fifth chapter. On the *Jocasta* of Silanion, M. Facius observes that the artist had shewn great ability in casting the paleness of death over her face; and, according to Beckman, that he probably had imagined a particular mixture of metals to produce this effect. It is to be lamented that the ancients, speaking of works relative to the arts, have not taken more care to transmit to posterity the process by which such great effects were produced.

The *statutes of the Gods and Heroes* are the object of the sixth chapter. Apollo with a cock on his fist, is mentioned: most likely this characterizes him as the god of light. We know not as yet, says M. Facius, of any monument like it. Another most singular one represents Jupiter without ears; an allegory which it is extremely difficult to explain.

The seventh chapter relates to the statues of kings and illustrious men. Sardanapalus was represented in an attitude of insult and self reproach, with an inscription importing *eat, drink, make merry: all the rest is nothing.* Which language was properly adapted to the description of that prince by historians. There are several inscriptions of the same kind in the *Athenæa* of Arts.

The eighth chapter contains the description of several colossal statues, and the ninth of several images and other figures.

The tenth contains an account of the small images executed in gold, either in honour of Gods, Goddesses, and distinguished characters, or even of courtezans; for several writers speak of that of the famous Phryne. Sometimes Princes and Kings were represented at half length; the Greeks called these figures προτομαὶ, we call them *Busts*.

The eleventh chapter illustrates chased shields, and vases charged with alto and basso-relievos. M. Facius observes that on the shield of Ulysses was a dolphin; on that of Idomeneus a cock; on that of Menelaus a dragon; on that of Aristomenes a spread eagle; and on that of Alcibiades a Cupid.

The twelfth treats of Glytica and of the different works it has produced for rings, seals, &c.

Whatever relates to painting, as the names of the most celebrated painters, their principal works, and the exposition of various subjects, executed by unknown artists, is to be found in the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth chapters. It is evident that in ancient times Greece alone produced eminent painters; and M. Facius informs us, on the authority of Strabo, that Sicyon, for a long time had a celebrated school, and that the three predominant and esteemed styles among the Greeks were the *Ionic*, the *Sicyonian*, and the *Attic*.

Whatever relates to architecture, and works belonging to that art is related in the sixteenth and seventeenth chapters.

The eighteenth enumerates artists of different sorts.

The nineteenth is an epitome of miscellanies on different sorts of works.

The twentieth and last chapter treats of the different coins of Greece and of their dies.

M. Facius has not been satisfied with translating such passages as might enrich his collection, he has affixed historical, critical, or grammatical notes to each chapter; and occasionally compares the passages in Plutarch with those in other authors who have written on the same subject; or refers his readers to them.

The whole work is replete with erudition, and proves that the author has a profound knowledge of Greek literature and of antiquity. M. Facius's book therefore must be considered as a *compendium* equally entertaining and useful to the Archæologist, or Antiquary, and to the amateurs of the Greek language.

Observations addressed to the British Public; in particular to the Grand Juries of these Dominions. 8vo. pp. 73, price 1s. 6d. Booth, London, 1800.

The man who is not affectionately interested in the welfare of his country is unworthy of the protection which that country extends to its citizens, and especially of the numerous blessings which accompany a high state of civilization, like that of Britain. But affection has different ways of shewing itself: it may be too fond, or it may be too fearful; too fond to discover imperfections which are obvious to others, too fearful and anxious for the welfare of the subject which engrosses its attention, and hereby induced to take alarm without real cause for apprehension. In general, the happy medium though the most difficult is the most advantageous: but, wherever admonition may be salutary, the effect of that error which leads to caution, and by caution to amendment, is far more desirable, than that security which closes its eyes against danger, till too late, and when repentance is unavailing, exhausts itself in hopeless lamentations and despair.

The author of the pamphlet before us, appears to be impressed with a sense of the danger to which this country is exposed, not so much from foreign foes, as from internal relaxation of manners. He fears that immorality *increases* among us and that the bonds which connect society, are loosened by principles inconsistent with the welfare of the body politic. We shall not captiously except against this idea of *increasing* depravity: yet we may observe, that in the whole course of our reading, we have remarked the same complaint, in almost the same language, made by moralists in general: each lamenting that the virtues of the predecessors were enfeebled in their posterity; and of course, each regarding the generation then passed away, as more exemplary than that which was current to himself.

But whatever be the proportions of virtues and vices in different periods, there

is at all times abundant occasion for the remonstrances of the sage, and for the spirit of the reformer. To rouse the languid attention of the times to a sense of duty, whether to God or man, is no mean service to the public, and whoever perceives a danger and cautions against it, deserves at once the acknowledgments and the support of his countrymen.

The infection of French principles in polity and religion undoubtedly prevailed among us, at one time, to an alarming extent: we hope and believe that the delusion is very much abated, if not altogether exploded; but neither the danger we have experienced, nor our deliverance from it should be discarded from our recollection. It is the laudable intention of this author to recal our escape to our remembrance, to caution us against self-sufficiency and supineness, to urge a reformation both public and private, and to excite every man in his station, and according to his influence, to do his duty, and assist in promoting the true interests of the British community.

But, especially, he calls on Grand Juries to exert the power with which the law has invested them, and to practise their privilege of *presenting* nuisances of every kind, whatever is adverse to good manners. He thinks that much benefit may be derived from such public expressions of abhorrence, and that vigorous examples of exerted principle would effect, in a legal manner, what individuals may desire, but relinquish without attempting, because they consider private endeavours as unavailing. With our author, we too are friends to morals: we too see, in the profligate manners of the French nobility, the causes of their ruin: we know they had abandoned themselves to licentiousness; where then is the wonder they abandoned their country to the destroyer? They were not degraded by expulsion, by inimical decrees which stripped them of their honours, by meeting, as opponents in policy or in arms, those who had sustained the lowest offices in their houshold: they were previously degraded from the ranks of true honour by their dishonourable lives: they became unworthy of their dignities when dissipation, folly, and guilt beclouded their intellects and engrossed their time, their talents, their understandings; their blood was corrupted, not by the decrees of the convention or the ferocious edicts of Roberspierre, but by frivolity and lewdness, by bodily excesses, and by mental imbecility. This unhappy race may justly be exhibited *in terrorem* to the great of the earth; and those who desire to escape their fate should charge themselves daily and hourly not to adopt their maxims, or to imitate their conduct.

Do we then exonerate the lower ranks from their delinquencies? No: but we attribute so much to example that we know not where to terminate its effects. It is the stone thrown into the pool, which produces circle after circle in succession, till the most distant parts of the surface have felt the commotion, and observation can no longer distinguish its effects though convinced of their existence.

The writer does not confine himself to the professed purport of his pamphlet: perhaps it might not have been the worse if he had: but as his digressions mark his earnestness in the cause he has espoused, we can overlook these, as we could overlook more considerable imperfections, for the sake of his main argument, and the general tenor of his exhortations.

We shall give a few examples of his style and manner of reasoning.

The late successes of the French on the continent, which have rivetted the fetters of that part of Europe, at least for some years, cannot, without the intervention of other more powerful causes, be ascribed to their Emperor. It is impossible not to perceive the hand of an over-ruling Providence which, for purposes we cannot presume to scan, so disposed of the measures of his antagonists as to lay them at his feet almost without resistance. What could induce a garrison of thirty thousand men, whose courage and discipline have never been disputed, with arms in their hands, to surrender, without an effort, at Ulm? Witness the same folly and credulity which preserved the bridge of Vienna on the word of an enemy proverbially faithless: and the more fatal armistice, when a fortnight's fortitude and perseverance would, in all human probability, have placed Napoleon and his army at the mercy of the allies.

The unexampled prosperity of our country in itself implies danger: for, at the same time that it commands the admiration of surrounding nations, it also excites their jealousy. It behoves us, therefore, to be on our guard, and not to be so ostentatious in that display of wealth which has marked our progress, on every shore and in every clime where the Bri-

tish arms have penetrated. But no system that the wisdom of man can devise, will ensure to us the continuance of the blessings we have so long enjoyed, unless the exercise of private virtue is restored through every branch of society, and fostered by the diligent and united circumspection of all men entrusted in any respect with the interests of religion and moral order, and for the prevention of those crimes which will otherwise cover us with disgrace and infamy, and finally accelerate our destruction.

Of the attachment of the lower classes of our fellow-subjects towards their superiors, it would be painful to entertain the smallest suspicion. But it is melancholy to observe, that the middling classes of society, the grand link that has bound us together for so many years, are disappearing very fast, more particularly in the country, through the intervention of over-grown farms, which have thrown the industrious labourer to such a distance, that all prospect of bettering his condition has for ever vanished from his sight.

The following remarks deserve the reflection of our female readers. We have often been surprized, that the very consideration of certain indelicacies being the offspring of French invention, and the adoption of French usurpers, has not been inducement sufficient to the British fair to reject them: for why should French dominion be admitted any more in habiliments than in politics? We are not slaves yet: and shall slavery begin with our women?

This uniform, this unreserved and cheap display of beauty, has rendered it too familiar, and disarmed it of all fascination:—it may attract the snares of the seducer; but the honourable lover, the man of sense and reflection, who looks for the solid and rational delights of domestic life, recoils from the idea of associating his destiny, or of risking his hopes of happiness with such slight and frail materials.

I cannot forbear stating, on very credible information, that a respectable physician should have declared that, in one season only, no less than two hundred female patients under his care had either actually died, or would continue to linger for life, under complaints for which there was no cure;—and all contracted in consequence of the exposure of their persons in the pernicious and prevailing indecent fashions of the day!—But the mischief, distressing as it is, does not end here: it will extend to posterity, and succeeding generations will have to deplore the disorders entailed upon them by their parents.

Next to the education of youth, it is, I believe, allowed, that nothing can have a greater influence on the morals, good or bad, of society, than the representations of the theatre, which, under the management of talents and integrity, might certainly be applied to promote the noblest purposes of virtue, as much as, at the discretion of the mercenary and unprincipled, they might be perverted to the worst ends of vice,—in preparing the human mind for the gradual encouragement of debauched habits, and the most licentious courses. Perhaps it would be difficult to calculate the extent of that mischief, which has been circulated by the exhibitions on the stage of characters the most abandoned, in such a specious garb as covers the deformity of vice and depravity, from the disgust and detestation of the honest and the good.

Nevertheless, truth compels me to state that, in some late instances, such pieces have been, not only suffered in the performance, but applauded, which, in my own opinion, sanctioned by good authority, have had a tendency highly indecorous, corrupt, and immoral; I allude more particularly to those plays which have been translated from the German Drama.

We flatter ourselves that we may venture to console this well-intentioned writer, by hoping that there is more virtue among us than he thinks for: by hinting at a spirit of contempt for those who degrade themselves conspicuously, as not only extant but extending; by reminding him of those periods of our history, from which we have risen to comparative rectitude, periods when the whole land was deluged with manners openly offensive to decency; when the court itself was the established school of immorality under royal patronage; when no modest female went to the theatre, nor any woman, if she ventured thither, shewed her own face; unless lost to shame, but

Sat indignant at a courtier's play,
Whence not a *mask* went unimprov'd away.
When the wild licence of a foreign reign
Did all the dregs of bold Socinus drain:
Pulpits their sacred satire learn'd to spare,
And vice admir'd to find a flatt'rer there!

We understand this is the production of a gentleman who was lately chairman of a Middlesex Grand Jury.

A Compendious History of New England, designed for schools and private families, by Jedidiah Morse, D. D. and the Rev. Elijah Parish, A. M. 12mo. pp. 388; with a map of the United States, pr. 1 doll. 25 c. bound. Charlestown, near Boston, N. America, S. Etheridge, 1804. Taylor, London Price 6s.

It is, undoubtedly extremely proper,

as the authors of the volume before us observe in their preface, "that every person should possess some knowledge of the history of his own country:" and they observe justly, that youth is the fittest time of life in which to acquire this knowledge; it is the season of the greatest leisure, the memory is less incumbered, curiosity is more easily stimulated and gratified, and impressions then received are most permanently retained in future life: it is, therefore, of the utmost consequence what kind of historical works, as well as others, are confided to the perusal of youth.

History is usually a narration of striking events, originating in the worser passions of the human mind; because the effects of more amiable dispositions are rather private than notorious, and afford little opportunity for those animated descriptions, or those interesting incidents, in which history so strongly delights, that some have supposed them to form her proper object. This account of the settlement of America by colonists from England, by no means departs from the general character of history; it presents to our view not only the distresses naturally to be expected in commencing the population of an uncultivated country; such as, scanty means of subsistence if not absolute want, the absence of civilized society, and of public officers whose superintendance over extensive districts constitutes the general duties of government, and is acquiesced in by individuals for the benefit of the whole; but it abounds also in all the horrors of wars prolonged among savage nations, animated with all the violence of ungovernable passions, and infuriated by the most ferocious barbarities, massacres, torments, and lingering deaths. We equally pity, and equally blame the inhumanity and the impolicy of either side, alternately. Friends ourselves to the principles of peace, and desirous of their prevalence over the whole race of mankind, we acknowledge no distinction between White Brethren and Red Brethren. The human form was never made to be mangled, nor the human mind to be lacerated by its fellows.

The reverend compilers of this volume have mingled in their performance much of that peculiar piety which they found in their originals: and which yet continues to tincture the phraseology of America; but we cannot recommend to European historians of the present day, the peculiarities of that language which might be sufficiently well understood when and where it was current, among the puritans who first peopled America, and their immediate descendants.

Undoubtedly every event whether afflictive or prosperous may be referred to the superintending care of the great Father of all: but there is such a thing as a just medium between a total omission of acknowledgment to God, which tends strongly to the most despicable and pernicious atheism, and a perpetual introduction of *special* interferences of providence, which is apt to delude weak and uninstructed minds into the toils of superstition; —extremes almost equally to be avoided, by whoever wishes well to mankind and to his country, or designs to instruct the world at large; a principle which ought to be constantly kept in view by all who undertake to write whether for youth or for maturer years.

The work begins with the discovery of America, mentions the origin of most towns of New England, with the names of their founders, and is brought down to the present time.

It is printed on a large type, and does no discredit to the American press.

Essay towards a Mineral History of Lapland, and West Bothnia. Stockholm, Delon.

There are few countries where so much industry and attention is employed in acquiring a thorough knowledge of the country, as in Sweden. Warmholz, in his Bibliotheca Historica Sueco Gothica, mentions 854 works relative to Swedish geography; and in part iv. of Ludekin's Archives of Learning, we find a catalogue of more than 130 maps of this kingdom. We are much indebted to the office of the royal land-surveyor in Stockholm, for several distinct charts of the Swedish provinces; as likewise to Le Baron S. G. Hiomelin for his fine "*Chartor öfver*" "*Swerige med lifogade Ritningar*" in two parts. Many learned Swedes have travelled the different provinces of the kingdom, and have published descriptions of the places visited in their route. There also appears not infrequently, in academical disputations at the Universities, accurate descriptions of single parishes and districts,

as well in the Latin as in the Swedish language. For some time past, public attention has been greatly directed to that cold and distant region, Lapland, as appears in the printed accounts of Skiöldebrand and Wahlenburg, [and among ourselves of Acerbi.] To these may be added the author of the present work, which is of importance to mineralogists and geologists.

Swedish Lapland possesses great treasures of iron ore, mines of copper, and in some places of lead containing silver. A part of Tornea Lapmark, i. e. the parish of Jukhasjarvi, Lulea Lapmark, also Gellivari and the parish of Jokkmoh, with a part of Pitea Lapmark, are well known on account of the ores and minerals they furnish. But in Kemi Lapmark or in Enonteki parish, in Tornea Lapmark no vein of ore has hitherto been discovered. The nature of the country, the many sandy heaths and marshes, or hills covered with sand and stones, which seldom consist of solid materials, appear to be the cause. Where we find mountains in this country, they consist partly of granite, on the lower hills, and partly of the usual composition of mountains, on rocks, formed of glimmer and quartz in larger or thinner layers; without lime, or any of the just-mentioned component parts of mountains. That district of Lapland which contains ores and minerals stretches from north-west to south-east; or from the high rocks there to the gulf of Bothnia, on the Baltic, in Tornea and Lulea Lapmark. In the adjoining parts, the parishes lying in West Bothnia, are found sulphur stones, and here and there a little copper ore, with a few stones containing iron; but, as well there as in the southern parishes of West Bothnia (a country which, according to the editor, is overflowed by the rivers descending from the rocky mountains, and from Lapmark) no ores of any value have been found, except a little iron stone on the Lapland boundaries. All the parishes are accurately described, according to their physical, as well as mineralogical circumstances. The situation of the mountains, the veins of ore and their situations, direction, quality, or fineness and revenue, are examined and stated. The mines and smelting houses are noticed, and an historical account is given of their discovery and of the present state and quantity of their productions.

The different minerals which are found in that country are likewise enumerated; as for example, the ore in the parish of Jukhasjarvi consists mostly in blue inclining to violet copper glass with yellow copper sand and green talksheifer, with fine quartz and glimmer, and some chrystal of halh-path; with which are sometimes found, dark blue magnetic iron ore, and octohaedric chrystals of iron ore. The clean ore contains from 20 to 50 per cent of copper; and, at the same time, 7 to 8 loths ($\frac{1}{2}$ oz.) of silver. Some part of the ore contains gold. The pure copper contains, in 100 marks, 20 loths of silver. Some have supposed that cinnabar has been found in the mines; but, the iron oker which has been found there, partly massive, and partly mixed with green quartz, and yellow-grey clay, which has been taken for cinnabar, has, on trial, been found to contain neither quicksilver nor copper. In several of the mines there have been found, among other minerals, sundry sorts of iron ore, strahlstein, speckstein, braunspath, chorit feldspath, kalkspath, glimmer schieffer, tremolit; likewise are found schleifstein, berg chrystal, (and yet no real precious stone; although quartz chrystal, and halh-spath have been sometimes mistaken for such) likewise lead ore, and some sulphur ore. Several tons of lead ore have been sent from thence to Stockholm; which has been found useful for black lead pots, and other purposes. In a manner equally intelligent and particular, the author describes the remaining parishes. In this description he has, in part, made use of the collection of minerals of the late Counsellor of Mines, Adlersparre; and, in part, of the yearly accounts sent to the College of Mines. The Protonotarius Robsam, in the College of Mines, has often taken journies through Lutea Lapland, and the artist Wallman, and the miner Swal, through West Bothnia. These, with his own journies to the newly established mines and smelting houses, have furnished materials for the present work, in the perusal of which it would be of service to have before us the geographical chart of West Bothnia and Swedish Lapland, printed in 1796. The author has added to his description three new charts, viz. 1. The mountains of Gellivari, by Robsam; 2. The copper and iron mines of Svappavaara, by Adlerheim, Counsellor

of Mines; and 3. A sketch of the granite quarry in Lappiovara; and the view of Yllastunturi. From the whole, we may see that nature here too, though so far to the north, has deposited treasures of minerals. It is a pity that the use of them is almost prohibited by their great distance, by the difficulty of conveyance, whether by rein deer, or by other modes, by the want of labourers, and the scarcity of wood, as no trees grow there, except the dwarf birch. For this reason, these mines do not always repay the labour and expense which is annually bestowed upon them.

Epistolarion, &c. Correspondence, &c. in modern Greek.

The state of the Turkish empire appears to us to be so peculiar, that we know not how to consider the present government, as likely to be permanent: yet it has weathered so many storms, resembling those which now assail it, that we know not how to consider its condition as desperate. This uncertainty induces us to accept from any quarter, authentic information, however imperfect, as to its past history, on which to ground some conjecture, as to its future fate. Something of this nature appears in the present volume; which combines additional interest with that which must always accompany productions of the Greek press, and indications of taste for the revival of letters among the descendants of those who once maintained a reputation in science and knowledge, which other nations might emulate, but did not equal.

From the Patriarchal press at Constantinople, has lately appeared a volume of letters, which the learned physician, Bazilius the editor, wishes, should be put into the hands of youth, as specimens of the epistolary style, and as proper models for imitation. In this work it happens that the collateral circumstances interest much more than the main subject. If simplicity, brevity and point recommend letters, the stiff rhetoric and verbal inanity of most of these examples are not favourable to the instruction of learners; but, after a variety of tedious exemplars, which occupy 71 pages, follow 200 pages, containing the important letters of Alexander Maurocordatus, privy counsellor of state to the Porte, whose influence in war and peace, especially from the year 1633 to 1659, is well known. It is true, that his letters are not uniformly in the purest style. They possess, indeed, occasionally, but not always, that hearty simplicity which is greatly superior to artificial and ornamental sentences. But, unhappily, not one of them is dated; and it requires more than a superficial knowledge of the history of the times, to assign to each its proper period. Neither can we report favourably of the execution of the volume; the perusal of such a wretched print, with types, which should have been thrown aside as useless, on paper which is nearly transparent, is extremely tiresome. Nevertheless, a reader need not lay this book out of his hand, without having received improvement of several kinds.

We here see at once the character of one of the noblest of the modern Greeks. His family was from Chios. As a citizen, husband, father, friend, and man of business, he was worthy of true honour; nor was he unfortunate, in comparison with others; yet he was unceasingly oppressed by the despotic and suspicious government in whose service he laboured, and by want of patriotism among the Greek nation. He was well versed in the works of antiquity; and feelingly recommended to the Alexandrian Patriarch Gerasimus, as also, on every occasion to his son, to make himself thoroughly master of the works of the ancients as the only way to become great. He dwelt much on the cultivation of the old attic graces, whose remains had been collected by Marqurus and Korydalus; and strongly advises him to exercise himself in the ancient style. In criticism he seems to have taken Photius for his guide; and he commends to his son, the letters ascribed to Phalaris (of which Sir William Temple speaks so highly) which next to Photius's letters to Amphilochius, Bishop of Cyzicus, he esteems as the finest examples of writing. He is perfectly acquainted with every period of his national literature, and quotes the fathers of the church, and the Latin grammarians, frequently. As amusement in the camp, Militeus, Bishop of Arta, was commissioned to send him the *Erotika*. Nevertheless, his historical treatises merit the utmost attention; such as, several letters on the events of war, and especially the printed discourse, *Presbytikas pros Germanous peri eirenes*, of 1691, for which he rightfully assumes some merit (letter to Constantius Ducas). We confess it is not written in the style of Thucidydes; yet, the representation it contains is not without eloquence. It appears that the grand signior Achmet II. employed him in an embassy to Germany, at the commencement of his reign. The object of the Porte, at that

time, was to convince the Austrians that a desire for peace, was not the effect of weakness, or fear. To this end, he enumerates their victories, to shew that they ought rather to be ascribed to accidental errors, from the too great haste of the Ottoman leaders, than to the preponderance of the Austrians; and that the Porte always remained possessed of great resources, after all its losses; that the Austrians should not deceive themselves, on account of the frequent insurrections in the Turkish provinces, or even in the metropolis, they having no relation with the Turkish government. If the Grand Seignor was too mild or negligent, something might break out and rage dreadfully for a few days, but the sovereign, or some man of power, soon rises up, and destroys the rebels in a little time, as the majesty of religion inspirits a multitude at the first summons. In Turkey, public affairs are not transacted exclusively by officers of birth or family. Talents and industry give the lowest born a claim to the highest offices of the state. Mistakes are sometimes made, but are soon remedied; and incapable ministers are treated without ceremony: therefore, when that immeasurable empire appears to be in the greatest danger, it is always possible and probable that among so many people of talent, the Sultan may find some man equal to meet the urgency of the occasion.

Page 273, &c. are letters from John Nicholas, the son of Alexander Maurocordatus, Waivode, sometime of Moldavia, and sometime of Wallachia; not equal to his father's writings, yet not without interest. Several excellent men are likewise introduced to nearer notice: especially, Jacob Manar, the learned Argive, and Gerasimus (with whom A. Maurocordatus, was always in the closest connexion) also Dositheus Patriarch of Jerusalem. At the end (probably from the editor), we find a description of the months; in which many grammarians are quoted; but at the same time, there are many proofs of ignorance. The indictions he derives from Augustus. Among the Egyptians, Italians, and Bohemians, the day commences at sun set; with the Babylonians, Persians, Greeks, and Nurembergers, from sun rise. A few prayers form the conclusion, not without something of *Battology*, or "vain repetition."

That the Patriarchal press should publish more proofs and accounts of the actions and learning of such men as old Maurocordatus, and his friends, is highly to be wished.

Tales in Verse; Critical, Satirical, and Humorous: By Thomas Holcroft. In two vols. price 8s. Symonds.

In those days, he and Honor never parted;
Nor was a doubt by either started
Which t'other did not, then and there,
Defend;
And swear
It was a doubt;
Or it was not,
Just as they pleas'd to make it;
And he that heard might take it
How he would,
Resent it how he could
For damn 'em if they did not both defy
Gunpowder, death, and him!
Such was their whim.
Your scoundrel fellows might indeed be truss'd up;
But, as for them, they'd kick a dust up,
Breed a riot, make a rout,
And if they pleas'd, by way of freak,
Of any spark
The nose would tweak,
Or kick the breech:
It was their itch;
At all times ready they t'exchange a shot:
Fighting to them was food;
And on that ground they stood,
Happy to make the bull-dogs bark,
Resolv'd to rule the roast.

. . . . . .

When shall the pond'rous truth be understood,
That the collective mass of Evil forms
One grand, sublime, inevitable good!
Evil! A blessing, vast! 'Tis safety harms!
Let innovating Blockheads chafe,
But, know, were we too happy, or too safe,
We should spring up so fast,
Men, women, children, there would be such swarms,
We should eat one another up at last!
Nay, now I well bethink me, 'twould be worse!
We should be subject to a greater curse!
The very clay, of which we're made,
Would quickly quite be wanting, in the trade!
Poor souls! The human race
Would no where find a single place,
Nor house, nor alley, lane, or street,
In which to stand, or sit, or set their feet!
When Terra-firma should be quite work'd up,
Down they must drop
By wholesale, one and all!
Into the sea, plump,
They must jump,
Or fall!

. . . . . .

Let Fungus still with Fungus vie;
To-night they shoot, to-morrow die:
A LONG FAREWELL TO FAME DECEASED.

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☞ The above was written, printed, and published, as POETRY, by the Author, living in Berner's Street, July 20, A. D. 1806.

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Military, Historical, and Political Memoirs of Count de Hordt, a Swedish Nobleman, and Lieut. Gen. in the service of the King of Prussia. 2 vols. crown 8vo. pp. about 720. Price 12s. Egerton. London, 1806.

An old soldier who is a man of sense, and has been a man of observation, that is to say, something beside a mere soldier, is one of the most amusing and entertaining of companions. The respect paid to well behaved military men of the superior classes, the opportunities they possess of enquiring into the truth of important facts, and the variety of persons and places which they visit in the course of their professional duties, are circumstances highly favourable to the acquisition of that knowledge of events and of the world, which, matured by reflection, improved by mental comparison and discrimination, and corrected by honour and morals, imparts to the discourse of a military character, a charm more easily felt than described. The same observation applies to the memoirs of those who have followed the profession of arms; and few books are more entertaining than those for which we are beholden to the private journals of observant officers.

If the work before us is not the very first in the first class of such communications, yet it possesses many interesting passages; and some things in it, are more particularly, or more faithfully described than in other works of great reputation.

Count Hordt was by birth a Swede, the profession of arms was hereditary in his family, and, willing to acquire experimental knowledge in his profession, he sought employment out of his native country, when that was at peace. He was first engaged in the Dutch service, under the prince of Waldeck, and beheld with deep concern the blunders of the allies, the pernicious effects of jealousies, rivalships, and competitions, during those campaigns in Flanders, in 1744, &c. which were commanded by William, Duke of Cumberland. After the peace of 1748, he returned to Sweden; where he married, but engaging in a conspiracy in favour of the crown, which failed, he escaped from his native country, entered the Prussian service, was taken prisoner by the Russians, confined twenty-five months in the citadel at Petersburgh, was released from thence on the accession of Peter III. to the Russian throne, and afterwards, was gradually, without any unusual proportion of fighting, promoted by Frederic II. to the rank of Lieutenant General, and the post of governor of Spandau. He appears to have been on familiar terms with Prince Henry of Prussia; accompanied him twice to Petersburgh, supposes himself to have been in the secret of the partition of Poland, and states the occurrence which he conceives produced it. The characters he draws of eminent personages are mostly just; he corrects some mistakes in historians usually considered as well informed; but is, in our opinion, though perfectly honest, liable to some exceptions of a like nature.

We do not perceive that military lessons of unusual importance, or more than common skill, are taught by the work before us: but, there are several political observations which manifest a sound understanding in the writer, and lead to important consequences.

The work opens with a description of the state of Sweden, during the reigns of Charles XI. and XII. and the assumption of accumulated power by the states on the demise of the latter, to the injury of the crown. A government the prey of distrust and animosity, a poor state, whose rulers accepted stipends from foreign courts, in order to support that party to which they were attached, and who relied on subsidies from France, as one of the ordinary ways and means of its members, however it might figuratively, or by courtesy, be called "independent," was not, in fact, entitled to that honourable distinction. The author well observes, that

A monarch invested with full powers to do good, is above the temptation of selling himself to a foreign court, because his interest, closely linked with that of his people, is to avert every thing which might tend to endanger the security, peace and happiness of his monarchy: but what considerations would have sufficient power to confine within the limits of justice and patriotism the members of a senate and national assembly, who, having usurped and preserving the full exercise of the executive power, have neither enquiries nor punishment to dread, and who, poor, or at least, not wealthy, are, for the most part, eager to make a fortune, *per fas et nefas*, if circumstances favour their views?

Such was the state of Sweden at this period; nor did it escape the attention of other European powers. Each strove to draw advantage from it in his own way; and France, of late more closely connected with us, made use of every means in order to play a principal part.

To answer the purposes of her crooked politics, France embroiled Sweden in a war with Russia; and the Swedes conducted it in a manner calculated to produce much more injury to themselves than to their enemies. The French Ambassador bought the Swedish senators; but he could not give their officers military skill. Sweden lost the greater part of Finland; and, notwithstanding the subsidies of France, the finances of the kingdom were completely exhausted.

The author speaks highly of the valour displayed by the English at the battle of Fontenoy.

It is impossible not to acknowledge they went up to the enemy in the most excellent order and evinced the most undaunted valour; they were cut to pieces, the ground was covered with their mangled bodies and strewed with an innumerable multitude of officers; and, after this bloody and dreadful conflict, a general mourning took place among all the best families in the British Isles.

I was sent to the Duke of Cumberland two or three times during the action, with various messages from the Prince de Waldeck: and never found him but in those places where the fire was the hottest, and at the head of his infantry, nor did he, or the body of men he commanded, ever seem to care about us, they fought as if they had been alone, and retreated the same.

I had another opportunity to make the same observation two years after, at the battle of Lawfeld. That nation has really something peculiar about them, and which distinguishes them from every other. Their women even preserve all their *sang froid* in the greatest perils, and amidst the horrors of the carnage.

He attributes to disunion among the various commanders of the allies, not only the loss of opportunities of effecting victories, but many of their most disgraceful defeats: we firmly believe, no worse principle can possibly pervade an army.

The Count's description of his imprisonment in the citadel at Petersburgh is interesting: and it appears that no individual but those composing the *Secret* Tribunal of Russia, knew where he was confined; not even any of the foreign ministers, so closely was the secret kept.

I continued to live without any sort of amusement or diversion whatsoever, and became heartily weary of my wretched existence; I nevertheless experienced in this circumstance the strange power of habit on the human frame; as the first three months of my captivity appeared so intolerably irksome that I could have almost done any thing to get rid of existence, whereas the three following seemed infinitely less painful. I passed the day according to the following plan; I arose at seven in the morning, my breakfast employed me till eight; I dressed and read for an hour. My reading over, I walked up and down my room for a couple of hours, at times agitated with a train of gloomy thoughts, at others indulging in the fondest hopes. About one in the afternoon, a soldier brought in my dinner. I remained two hours at table, sharing my dinner with my servants who ate in a corner of the room, and with whom I conversed to pass the time. At three I drank a cup of coffee, and then took another walk up and down the room till five, for the sake of preserving my body in some degree of exercise. At five I began to read until eight o'clock; a very light supper finished my day, and at ten I retired to rest. Such was my daily occupation.

My officer and his men gradually became attached to me, and began to behold me with an eye of compassion. I observed two grenadiers, in particular, who seemed to possess more feeling than their companions, and who gave me to understand that they would very willingly do any thing that might soften my sufferings and sorrows. One evening, during the officer's absence, one of them said to me that if I would walk on the ramparts I should see the whole city illuminated, that day being one of those many festivals frequently celebrated in Russia. I was delighted at having an opportunity of breathing the fresh air for a few minutes, and we both went out together to see the fortress. There are six bastions and several out-works. The construction is on the best principles. Peter I. had caused it to be erected at the mouth of the Neva, wishing to establish his capital there, and have a navy on the Baltic. As we were examining this fortress, we found on one of the bastions which is washed by the Neva, a piece of ground, and from its projection we were enabled to behold the whole city; this would have been a delightful prospect for any person, but for me, who for a series of time had only beheld my chamber walls, it proved almost heavenly.

The cathedral within the citadel excited

my curiosity. It is one of the noblest edifices in point of architecture. My grenadier entered it with me, but unfortunately while we were within, the door was closed on us, so that we had no means of getting out. I then grew apprehensive lest the poor soldier should hang himself out of despair, in order to escape the punishment which awaited him. I cared not for myself. While he was seeking after the means of procuring our egress, the glare of a lamp, which burns there night and day, enabled me to distinguish two magnificent monuments; they were those of Peter I. and the Empress Anne. I went and sat down in the space between the two monuments and began musing on the mutability of human affairs.

Meanwhile my grenadier had found out a small door, near which, a sentinel of the guard was stationed. I slily dropt a ducat in the sentry's hand, and he had the charity to let us pass. We returned joyfully to our sad abode; and this was the first and last time I ventured to expose myself to such accidents.

I will even confess that long after I had been released from that place of confinement, I frequently dreamt I was there still, and that the agitation this produced on my mind, was always accompanied with a sort of fever during four and twenty hours. Vol. p. 76-79.

He describes the state in which the late Empress lay after her death, in the following terms:

We found the coffin placed in the large hall, which was hung with black, and adorned with festoons of silver brocade. The apartment was so brilliantly lighted up, that our eyes could not bear the glare of the immense number of wax lights. The coffin, covered with a pall of gold cloth, trimmed with Spanish lace, was placed on a platform a few steps higher. A rich coronet adorned the head of the late Empress. Four ladies dressed in deep mourning, and entirely covered with crape veils, stood by the side of the coffin. Two officers of the body guard, in full uniform, stood on the first step, and on the top one, at the foot of the coffin, an Archimandrite was reading aloud passages out of the bible, and relieved at intervals, the night being no interruption to this part of the ceremony. On stools placed around the coffin, were deposited the Imperial Crown, which is most magnificently adorned with the most precious stones, together with several other ancient crowns of the kingdoms of Casan, Astracan, and Siberia; and those of every order of knighthood, namely, that of St. Andrew, St. Alexander Neuski, St. Anne, and St. Catherine, as well as those of Prussia, Sweden and Poland.

General de Korff had warned me that it was customary to kiss the hand of the corpse, to which I had answered I was not much disposed to conform, not merely because I thought nothing could be more offensive than to kiss a dead body, but also because I had personal reasons to complain of the late Princess's treatment; yet, as he himself complied with the ceremony which all who entered performed, I did not chuse to appear singular, and stifled all my objections. p. 105-106.

Our author's feelings on being commanded to levy contributions in Moravia, with his conduct on that occasion, do him honour.

We visited the greater part of Moravia, and mercilessly stript the inhabitants of their money and cattle. The inveterate animosity on both sides was such in this war, that the hostile nations did not merely content themselves with fighting, and ill treating their prisoners, but they even proceeded reciprocally to acts of cruelty against the harmless inhabitants. I remember with grief to this day the horrid spectacle this expedition exhibited to me. The peasants together with their wives and children followed obstinately their cattle, and nothing could induce them to resign their own property; they screamed around us, and burst into floods of tears.

One day we halted in a village to refresh and rest ourselves. The manor belonged to a lady of quality, who received me and my officer with infinite politeness. Her house was managed in a good stile, and our table was exceedingly well supplied. But while the good lady was giving us such good cheer, my commissary was demanding a thousand ducats from her steward, and laying his hands on all the horses and cattle both in her house and the village; the steward came in haste to his mistress, who, with tears in her eyes, came to me to complain of this oppressive act. I observed it was out of my power to change any thing in the scale of proportionate contributions; on which she replied, she would readily pay the sum demanded, provided her poor vassals were allowed to retain their cattle, which was their only resource and means of existence. I own I felt my heart more oppressed at the time than she could herself. Her words were interrupted with sobs, and what added still to the pain I experienced, was the sight of her two daughters, who stood weeping by her side, and joining their entreaties to those of their respectable mother. Their tears rendered their beauty still more interesting, and I felt myself ready to do any thing to oblige these amiable children. I sought after some expedient at least in order to diminish their affliction, and prove to them that I was not cruel and barbarous.

" Madam," said I to their mother, " compose yourself, do but desire your men to follow their cattle, and leave the rest to me. I hope I shall be able to give you some sort of satisfaction."

Having left her, I gave orders that all the cattle belonging to her and her vassals should be kept separate, during the remainder of our expedition, from that enormous quantity of cattle we had already got with us. My expedition over, I again joined General Werner, who testified to me his satisfaction at the success we had met with. I took this opportunity of fulfilling my promise: " General," said I, " you see we come back with our hands full, but I hope you will not deny me a present for myself, having been the chief of the expedition. 'Tis not money that I am asking for," (I knew all along he had the King's permission to keep this last article for himself, and that he was not insensible to its allurements) " my claims are confined to the obtaining of this cattle, which I would not allow our soldiers to mix with the rest."—" You may have them with all my heart," replied the General. I called the good lady's people, and told them they might take back their property to the village; I sent a trumpet along with them, in order that they might not meet with any impediment. Their mistress was so much affected at this act of mine, that she wrote to all her relations throughout Silesia, begging them to express to me her gratitude. I then truly felt that next to the pleasure of doing good, there cannot be a greater than that of obliging persons of a sensible and grateful disposition. p. 141.

This volume also contains, a history of the Revolution effected in Sweden by Gustavus III., which is given at some length: and together with various personal adventures, in different parts of Europe, intermingled with rational and manly observations, imparts to these volumes a character of good sense, free from the frivolity, which too often disgraces personal memoirs: instruction of various kinds may be gathered from them, without injury to the heart or to morals public or private.

The Miseries of Human Life; or the Groans of Samuel Sensitive, and Timothy Testy: with a few Supplementary Sighs from Mrs. Testy. In twelve dialogues. Third Edition, foolscap 8vo. pp. 332. Price 8s. boards. Miller, London, 1806.

It happened that we accidentally opened this volume at the last page, so that the author's *postfixed* motto, after his *Finis*, informed us at once what was the nature of his work;

——" *ridentem dicere verum*
" *Quid vetat?*"

Why, nothing forbids that truth should be told, told too, chearfully, jocosely, nay facetiously, and if not roguishly, nobody likes it better than we do. We consider a right to laugh as a part of the *lex non scripta* of the British Constitution; and with the valiant Queen Bess we "think foul scorn" that any prince or potentate on earth should prevent John Bull, or any of his family, from shaking, either his sides, or his head, *ad libitum*. There is indeed a distinction between being laughed *with*, and being laughed *at*; the rule we believe, is—to let those laugh who win: though others say, let those laugh who can; for those who win will.——The publication before us, which in a very few weeks has reached a third edition, fully proves that something is to be won by laughing: the author laughed (in his sleeve) while composing it; the printer's devil—while it was at the press; the bookseller—when he saw his first and second editions exhausted; and its kind readers—during a summer recess from the arduous occupation of studying the good of their country: *Risum teneatis amici?* But, what is there in the " Miseries of human life" to excite this passion? It is a picture of minor misfortunes, rendered ludicrous by the importance attached to trifles. It is the ordinary vexations of humanity, the burrs which stick to whoever walks in the paths of life, which teaze if they do not wound, and irritate if they do not distress, heightened by association, assimilation, and ingenious description. The dialogue is well conducted, diversified by occasional allusions to classic writers, including scraps of Latin, and some of Greek, for the most part happily applied, though we think them sometimes chosen rather for sound, than for sense.

The author has struck out an idea capable of receiving innumerable forms. Every stage of our existence has its miseries; from those of " the schoolboy, who, with satchel on his back creeps unwillingly to school," and " the lover who composes his woeful ballad made to his mistress's eye-brow," and " sees Helen's beauty in a complexion of Egypt." Every profes-

sion has its miseries; the relations of life have their miseries, and perhaps there is no gratification more generally interesting than that which attends the recollection or the relation of adventures wherein good and evil of the lighter kinds, were so equally and intimately blended, that for a moment the mind was embarrassed to disentangle them.

That *such* calamities may bear being joked at, we willingly admit; and we heartily commend the author before us, for restraining his wit within the bounds of good manners. Had he treated serious subjects with levity, or unmanly sarcasm, we should have manifested our indignation; had he transgressed the laws of decorum, or of politeness, of virtue, or of religion, we should have thought no castigation too severe for him; but as the exciting of innocent mirth appears to have been his intention, we think him intitled to our thanks, and wish him on the part of the public still further "demonstrations of joy." We may add, *Ridendo castigat mores.*

The twelve dialogues comprise the Miseries of the Country; of Games, Sports, &c. of London, of Public Places, of Travellers, of Social Life, of Reading and Writing, of the Table, Domestic Miseries, and Miseries Miscellaneous. Such are the "miseries that flesh is heir to." Now for a few specimens taken at haphazard.

The delights of hay-time! as follows:—After having cut down every foot of grass upon your grounds, on the most solemn assurances of the Barometer that there is nothing to fear—after having dragged the whole neighbourhood for every man, woman, and child, that love or money could procure, and thrust a rake, or a pitch-fork, into the hand of every servant in your family, from the housekeeper to the scullion—after having long overlooked and animated their busy labours, and seen the exuberant produce turned and re-turned under a smiling sun, until every blade is as dry as a bone, and as sweet as a rose—after having exultingly counted one rising haycock after another, and drawn to the spot every seizable horse and cart, all now standing in readiness to carry home the vegetable treasure, as fast as it can be piled—at such a golden moment as this, Mr. Testy, to see volume upon volume of black, heavy clouds suddenly rising, and advancing, in frowning columns, from the South West; as if the sun had taken half the Zodiac—from Leo to Aquarius—at a leap:—they halt—they muster directly over head;—at the signal of a thunder-clap, they pour down their contents with a steady perpendicular discharge, and the assault is continued without a moment's pause, till every meadow is completely got under, and the whole scene of action is a swamp. When the enemy has performed his commission by a total defeat of your hopes, when he has completely swept the field, and scattered your whole party in a panic flight, he suddenly breaks up his forces, and quits the ground; leaving you to comfort and amuse yourself, under your loss, by looking at his *colours*, in the shape of a most beautiful rainbow, which he displays in his rear. p. 30.

While deeply, delightfully, and, as you hope, safely, engaged at home in the morning, after peremptory orders of denial to all comers whomsoever, — being suddenly surprised, through the treachery, or folly, of your servant, by an inroad from a party of the starched, stupid, cold, idle natives of a neighbouring country-town, who lay a *formal* siege, (by sap,) to your leisure, which they carry on for at least two hours, in almost total silence:—

"Nothing there is to come, and nothing past;
But an eternal *Now* does ever last!"

During the last hour, they alternately tantalize and torment you, by seeming, (but *only* seeming,) to go,—which they are induced to do at last only by the approach of a fresh detachment of the enemy, whom they descry at your castle-gate, and to whose custody they commit you, while they pursue their own scouring excursions upon the other peaceful inhabitants of the district. p. 40.

The plagues of that complicated evolution called "right hand and left," from the awkwardness of some, and the inattention of others;

Ned Tes.

"Palantes error certo de tramite pellit;
Ille *sinistrorsum*, hic *dextrorsum* abit."

Hor.

Tes. Again.

Being compelled to shift your steps, at every instant, from jig to minuet, and from minuet to jig-time, by the sleepy, ignorant, or drunken blunders of your musicians.

Ned Tes.

"*Tempora* mutantur, et nos mutamur in illis." p. 50.

As you are hastening down the Strand, on a matter of life and death, encountering, at an archway, the head of the first of twelve or fourteen horses, who, you *know*, must successively strain up with an over-loaded coal-waggon, before you can hope to stir an inch —unless you prefer bedevilling your white stockings, and clean shoes, by scampering and crawling, among, and under, coaches, scavengers' carts, &c. &c. in the middle of the street, p. 66.

After the play, on a raw wet night, with

a party of ladies,—fretting and freezing in the outer lobbies, and at the street-doors, of the theatre, among chair-men, barrow-women, yelling link-boys, and other human refuse, in endless attempts to find out your servant, or carriage, which, when found at last, cannot be drawn up nearer than a furlong from the door. p. 86.

After loudly boasting of your superior skill in stirring the fire and being requested by the lady of the house to undertake it,—suddenly extinguishing every spark, in playing off what you had announced as a chef-d'œuvre of the poker.

The lady, Mrs. Testy, has also her catalogue of miseries, such as

A termagant cook, who suffers neither yourself nor your servants to have a moment's peace—yet as she is an excellent cook, and your husband a great epicure, (excuse me, Mr. Testy,) you are obliged to smother your feelings, and seem both blind and deaf to all her tantrums. p. 275.

Working, half-asleep, at a beautiful piece of fine netting, in the evening—and on returning to it in the morning, discovering that you have totally ruined it.

After having consumed three years on a piece of tambour-work, which has been the wonder of the female world, leaving it, on the very day you have finished it, in the hackney-coach, in which you were exultingly carrying it to the friend whom you intended to surprize with it as a present: afterwards, repeatedly advertising—all in vain.

After dinner, when the ladies retire with you from a party of very pleasant men, having to entertain, as you can, half a score of empty, or formal females; then, after a decent time has elapsed, and your patience and topics are equally exhausted, ringing for the tea, &c. which you sit making in despair, for above two hours; having, three or four times, sent word to the gentlemen that it is ready, and overheard your husband, at the last message, answer "Very well—another bottle of wine." By the time that the tea and coffee are quite cold, they arrive, continuing, as they enter, and for an hour afterwards, their political disputes, occasionally suspended, on the part of the master of the house, by a *reasonable* complaint, to his lady, at the coldness of the coffee;—soon after, the carriages are announced, and the visitors disperse.

At a ball—when you have set your heart on dancing with a particular favourite,—at the moment when you delightedly see him advancing towards you, being briskly accosted by a conceited simpleton at your elbow, whom you cannot endure, but who obtains, (because you know not in what manner to refuse,) "the honour of your hand" for the evening.

Théorie du nouveau Système des Poids et Mesures, &c.—Theory of the New System of Weights and Measures, as applied to minting, the manufacture of plate, alloying, refining, &c. with tables for workmen concerned in their different branches, by M. le Page d'Arbigny, late first clerk and director of the Mint at Paris. Desvaux, 5 francs.

In this work, the author gives an abridged account of the new system, particularly as far as may be useful to goldsmiths and silversmiths, and those departments of commerce which relate to the precious metals; this occupies eleven sections, comprising, 1, the basis of the new system; 2, weights; 3, comparative value of the precious metals; 4, on numerical value; 5, intrinsic value; 6, tarif of the different values of specie, tokens, plate, &c. French or foreign; 7, on refining; 8, on the *mark* or *stamp*; 9, on the *Argue* (a term nearly corresponding to our public *assay*); 10, rules, and examples; and, 11, a general idea of the mode of conducting the *assay*. The writer then details various laws and decrees relative to this subject: these of course interest the French public only. A great number of tables succeed, intended to establish a comparison between the old and new systems. The work is terminated by a table of foreign coins of every nation, and their correspondence with the French standard, and also their reduction into livres, &c. by decimal arithmetic. This last article will particularly interest those foreigners, who have commercial concerns, or may have occasion to travel in France.

In our last number we noticed the numerous difficulties which harrassed the commercial operations of the French, occasioned by the introduction of their new system of weights and measures. The present article bears additional testimony to the truth of those remarks; and we doubt not but that M. d'Arbigny feelingly regretted the necessity of his publication, independently of any melancholy *ressouvenirs* which might be awakened in his mind, by a recollection of the political causes of that necessity.

This subject also seems to be a part of the struggle between France, and other nations, whether she shall impose on them her regulations, or they shall continue free to retain their own.

Histoire générale des Finances de la France, &c. A general history of the French Finances from the commencement of the Monarchy. By M. Arnould (de la Seine), Ex-Director of the Balance of Commerce, President of the Committee of Finances, &c. 1 Vol. 4to. 12fr. 50c. com. paper, 17fr. 50c. fine paper, 26fr. 50c. vellum paper. Rondonneau.

This work, which is an introduction to the annual budget of the French Empire, is divided into fourteen epochas; the first two relate to the Merovingian and Carlovingian dynasties: the ten following include the Capets, from Hugo Capet to Louis XVI: the thirteenth epocha is that of the permanent National Assemblies: the fourteenth commences with this century, and terminates at the coronation of the present Emperor.

In the course of this undertaking, the author shews in a very satisfactory manner, the various fluctuations of the financial system, and the value of the coin; the beneficial effects produced by the able administrations of Sully and of Colbert; the feeble and fruitless efforts of the National Assembly; and the supposed regularity and superiority of the present regime.

All calculations, documents, and every species of information which might be supposed to fatigue the reader's attention, are given in notes at the end of the publication.

Moralische Anecdoten: Moral Anecdotes, compiled by M. S. C. Wagner. 8vo. Berlin. Mazdorff. Vol. 2, 3, 2rxd.

This is a collection of anecdotes intended to form the public mind, and to instil instruction by examples drawn from passing events. As, for instance, accounts relating to the discovery of concealed crimes; the acquittal of oppressed innocence; the punishment of exalted criminals; the effects of remorse on the conscience; the consequences of good and of bad actions, and such other subjects of the same kind, as tend to convey useful instruction by calling the attention to actual examples.

Abwechsungen: Varieties, or serious and amusing Anecdotes. 8vo. pp. 230. Berlin. Mazdorff. 1rxd.

This work is composed of extracts from the papers, and other periodical publications, interspersed with historical, literary, and miscellaneous pieces; such as The history of the Gunpowder Plot—Account of a session of the English Parliament—On the origin of Playing Cards—On Mosaic work—and similar subjects.

Le Panier de Fruits.—La Corbeille de Fleurs.—8vo. 45 fr. pour l'année. Paris. Perlet. London, Dulau and Co.

Two amusing and instructive little works have just appeared at Paris, under the above titles; the one consisting chiefly of delineations and descriptions of flowers, the other of fruits. They are published alternately, once a fortnight: each number containing two plates, designed, engraved, and coloured with unusual care and skill; two sheets of letter-press, are added, not confined merely to explanation of the plates, but enlivened by various interesting articles, amusing, or scientific, poetry or prose. The whole forms a very superior vehicle of entertainment and instruction.

Tableaux Historiques des Campagnes d'Italie, depuis l'an IV. jusqu'à la Bataille de Marengo, &c. Historical Pictures of the Campaigns in Italy, from the 4th year of the French Republic, to the Battle of Marengo; to which is added, an account of the operations of the Army of the East, &c. &c. the bulletins of the Campaign in Germany, until the peace of Presburg. Printed by L. E. Hernan. Atlas folio pp. 190, plates and vignettes 26. Paris. Auber, Editor. London, Dulau, price £16. 16s.

This is a splendid and well executed publication; the paper is excellent; the press work is capital; the form of the types possesses the usual merits and defects of the French foundry.

The engravings however certainly form the principal object of this work; they are executed with the greatest care, and with a considerable portion of spirit, the views are said to be, for the *most part*, taken on the spot, but as the real views are not distinguished from those drawn after *description*, only a kind of distrust affixes to *each*, lest *that* should be imaginary. We must however, acknowledge, that the scenery of many is grand and characteristic, and that a general harmony of management

and tone of colour pervades the greater part of the compositions; at the same time we are of opinion that the bold and free handling of fore grounds by our English artists, is very far superior to the laboured neatness of these plates: the skies are very defective, and not comparable in beauty to some which have been produced among us.

The designs are by Carle Vernet. We believe this M. Vernet is son of Alexander Vernet, a landscape painter of merit, although not equal to his brother the famous Joseph Vernet. The plates are etched by Duplessis Bertaux.

The subjects are confused by their nature, and like all representations of battles that we have ever seen, convey but a very imperfect idea of real action.

We cannot but feel surprize at the choice of several of the designs; such for instance as the massacre of the inhabitants of Pavia by the French soldiers—the entry of the French into Venice, marked by the plunder of the famous horses of Lysippus—the forced march of the French troops into Leghorn, when they had the mortification of seeing 40 sail of laden English vessels escape them by quitting the port as they entered the city—the fête of Virgil at Mantua, and the proclamation of the Roman republic, which have little to do with military exploits.

As to the History, it is drawn up in such a style as to please Bonaparte himself; consequently, all his successes are magnified, and his reverses diminished: the author indeed is very near acknowledging that he was defeated at Acre by Sir Sidney Smith; and although he gives no account of the battle of the Nile, yet the dread of the squadron which afterwards achieved that victory, appears to have haunted the mind of the French commander in chief.

A short account of his Egyptian expedition is added, but not a word of its termination.

The ceremony of his consecration and coronation is related at sufficient length, and the bulletins of the last campaign in Germany are given *verbatim*.

On the whole this is a magnificent and curious work; it manifests great labour, care and attention, and may give a general, though we cannot say a faithful, idea of the subjects it comprises.

Translation of the Bible in the Gothic Language, by Ulfilas, or the most ancient Germanic document, from the text of Ihre, with a literal, interlined Latin translation, accompanied by a Grammar and Glossary. By F. C. Fulda; the Glossary corrected and augmented by H. Reinwald; the text of Ihre, carefully compared with an exact copy of the Codex Aureus, preserved in Upsal; the Translation and the Grammar, revised and improved, with Elucidations and Critical Notes; also an Historical and Critical Introduction, by J. C. Zahn. 4to. Leipsic. Barth. 9 rxd.

Letters in general, and those who indulge in researches on the history of languages, and on ancient literature, are indebted to the publishers of this Bible. The date of this translation is not precisely known; it is however pretty generally attributed to Ulfilas, Bishop of the Gothic christians in Dacia, Thracia and Mœsia. He filled the Episcopal see from the year 360 till about 380. Besides this translation of the Bible, many ancient writers attribute to him the invention of Gothic letters; he may indeed have improved that alphabet, but its origin seems to have been much more remote. Many learned men have questioned, whether the language of this translation be truly the ancient Gothic, or rather the old German? It is, however, almost generally agreed now, that it is Gothic; and that Ulfilas in his translation has made use of the Greek text of the New Testament.

However that might be, there exist two manuscripts of this translation, whose authenticity, after long disputes, seems to be at present tolerably well ascertained. One is the Codex Aureus preserved in the library of Upsal, and so named, because the letters seem to have been first drawn in ink, and then covered over with a leaf of gold or silver, portions of which are still sufficiently discoverable. This manuscript is actually in the most defective state; many chapters of each Evangelist are wanting entirely, and the end of each chapter is also wanting in all. Several copies of it have been made, and supplements attempted.

The other manuscript is the *Codex Carolinus* discovered in 1756, in the library of Wolfenbüttel, and published in 1762. It is in a better state of preserva-

tion; and appears to have been written in Italy, towards the end of the fifth century. Others pretend that it was written in Spain, where the Goths maintained their ground till the year 712.

These details are derived from the introduction placed at the head of the work under consideration; which also contains much curious information on the language and history of the Goths, extracted from the history of the German language and literature by Mr. Adelung.

After the description and history of the two manuscripts of Ulfilas, follow, 1. a critical review of the several editions which have appeared from 1665 to 1763; 2. an analytical account of grammars in the Mæso-Gothic and Anglo-Saxon languages, published since 1705; 3dly, an analytical account of Gothic glossaries, published since 1764; 4th, a list of the writings published, of which Ulfilas is the subject; on the Goths, their languages, &c. since 1597; 5th, a notice of publications on the Gothic history; 6th, a critical review of fragments written in the Gothic language.

The typographic part is carefully and handsomely executed. To the Gothic text is annexed a literal interlined Latin translation, in small types. The Latin version of Ihre is placed at the margin of each verse, printed in italics: the notes are at the bottom of the page. The whole work is divided into two parts, the first of which contains the text and the translation; the second contains observations on the language or grammar of Ulfilas. The historical introduction to which we have acknowledged our obligations, in the beginning of this article, precedes those two parts.

Munz und Medaillen Sammlung: A Description of the Cabinet of Coins and Medals of M. Joseph Appel: published by himself. Vol. I. 8vo. plates. Trattner, Vienna, 5 florins.

The first volume of this work is divided into four sections and an appendix. The first section contains the coins and medals of the Popes and other ecclesiastical persons; the second of the Emperors, Kings and Archdukes of Austria and the Electors; the third, of Dukes, &c. arranged alphabetically; the fourth of Republics, cities, and countries, also arranged in alphabetical order. The following are some of the more curious medals of which plates are given in this volume.

Medals of Popes Julius III. Leo X. Urban VII. (this is very rare, as he occupied the Papal throne three days only) Gregory XIII. XIV. XV Pius V. Clement VIII. IX. Conrad William and Conrad, Bishops of Wurzburg in 1523 and 1683. —Turkish piastres of various reigns.— A half-crown of Maximilian II.—Medal of Frederic V. Duke of Mantua from 1530 to 1540.——Alberic Cibo Malaspina, Prince of Massa in 1593.—Bessus III, Prince of Masserano.—Louis Count of Nassau Sarbruck—a Transylvanian medal of Stephen Bockhay, with the inscription *Dulce est pro patria mori*, in 1594,—and medals struck in honour of George Wissinger, Conrad Schwarz and William Pitt. Several of these medals merit more particular notice on account of the occasions on which they were struck; as that of Gregory XIII. on account of the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day in France: and that of Gregory XII. on a great famine. The appendix contains various coins and medals.

Dissertation sur le Monument de la Reine Comasarye, printed with the approbation of the Censors, at the imperial press of Petersburgh, 80 pages, 8vo. with an engraving, and ten sheets of ancient inscriptions.

This monument has been discovered by M. Kœhler, Collegiate Counsellor, during a journey he undertook in Taurica Chersonesus and Asiatic-Sarmatia. He has found many other monuments in the Chersonesus, and intends giving the public a description of them; but this one has appeared to him, deserving of peculiar attention, as being connected with the political, commercial, and religious history of the ancient inhabitants of those countries. This monument of Queen Comasarye, daughter of Gorgippus has been found on the banks of the Lake Temruck, at the extremity of a neck of land called Eludri-Etlan.

A correct drawing of it will be published, when it arrives at St. Petersburgh, to which city they are now carrying it with other antiquities. It is composed of two statues: on a free-stone pedestal, with a

Greek inscription. The pedestal was found, with one of the statues, on the banks of the lake Temruck; the other statue was found in the lake itself. The heads of the two statues are wanting. The inscription on the pedestal informs us, that "this monument has been erected "by Comasarye daughter of Gorsippus, "and wife of Pœrisades, in honour of "the gods Auerges and Astara, in the "time that Pœrisades was master of the "Bosphorus and of Theodosia, &c." This Pœrisades, according to our author, reigned from the year 349 to the year 31 before Christ.

M. Kœhler has found several inscriptions, the text of which he has annexed, with his observations, to his dissertation. The engraving which accompanies this pamphlet, exhibits three unknown coins of Theodosia and Gorgippus.

Statistischer Umriss der Saemtlichen Europaeischen Staaten.—Statistic view of all the States of Europe considered as to their extent, population, productions, commerce, finances, military constitution, and possessions in other parts of the Globe, by G. Hassel, vol. I. divisions 1st and 2d: 35 and 42 sheets in folio. Brunswick. Vieweg. 4 rxd. 8 gr.

This is one of the best works of the kind which has been published these ten years. The author begins by a general statistical survey of Europe; which he divides into four principal parts. The first includes Middle Europe, that is, the Austrian empire, the Prussian monarchy, the empire of Germany, and the free states of Ragusa and Pogliza. The second part called Northern and Eastern Europe, includes Russia, the Ottoman empire, Sweden, Denmark, and the Ionic republic. The third, or Western and Southern Europe, includes France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Holland, and Switzerland. The fourth, under the name of Insular Europe, includes Great Britain, Sardinia, and Malta.

These two divisions of the work contain, besides this general survey of Europe, a summary view of that branch of modern literature which embraces the statistics of Europe in general; also a peculiar statistical account of Middle Europe. Under the head of the Austrian monarchy, the author treats first, of the progressive aggrandisement of that empire; afterwards of the several countries which compose it; their physical state, and their population, which he estimates (after the peace of Luneville) at five-and-twenty millions. The extent of the Austrian possessions, at the same epocha he computes at 11,975 square German miles: the revenue at 120 millions of florins. Speaking of the military constitution, the author points out only the increase of the army since the thirty-years war; it was then composed of 150,000 men, and in the year 1800, it amounted to 495,000. To this article of Austria, is joined a statistical table of the hereditary countries, according to their divisions, sub-divisions, extent, population, productions, &c. On these various details, the author has consulted the excellent works of MM. Lichtenstern, Rohrer, Demyon, and others.

The same arrangement has been followed in the statistical account of Prussia. Its extent is estimated at 5,646 square miles: its population at 9,856,000 souls; its revenues at 40 millions of crowns; and its expenses at 35 or 37 millions. The army is composed of 240,000 men. The works consulted for this article, were those of Krug, and of Kuster.

The second division contains the statistical account of,

I. The electorate countries; that is to say; 1st, the electorate of the Arch-Chancellor; its extent, 25 square miles; its revenue, 6 or 700,000 florins; 2d, the electorate of Bavaria, before the treaty of Presburgh; revenue, 13 millions of florins; debts of the state, 60 millions: 3d, The electorate of Saxony: 4th, the electorate of Brunswick; the produce of its mines is valued at 350,000 crowns: 5th, that of Saltzburgh: 6th, that of Wurtemburg: 7th, that of Baden: 8th, that of Hesse.

II. Countries belonging to Princes; among whom, those of Nassau-Dien, and Nassau-Orange.

III. Countries belonging to Counts and Barons of the empire; as Bentheim, Lippe, Schauenburg, Fugger, Reuss, and Stolberg.

IV. Countries belonging to the Equestrian Order. Extent, after the peace of Luneville, 92 square miles; population, 20,300; revenue, 2,160,000 florins.

V. Free imperial cities: as Nuremberg, Frankfort, Bremen, Hamburgh, and Lubec.

The statistical accounts of the republics of Ragusa, and Pogliza terminates this second division. The last, whose chief town is Pierun Dubrava, is under the protection of Austria; its extent is only nine square miles; and its population, 20,000 inhabitants. The territory of Ragusa, is supposed to be 39 square miles; its population, 56,000 souls; and its revenue, 100,000 ducats, or 300,000 sequins.

Recherches sur la Force de l'Armée Française, &c. Researches on the Strength of the French Army, and the Basis on which it ought to be established according to Circumstances, &c. from Henry IV. to 1805. 1 vol. 8vo. 4 fr. 50 c. fine pap. 8 fr. Treuttel & Wurtz, Paris 1806.

As this work is certainly authentic, and shews the policy of this insidious power, we shall submit an abstract of it to our readers. It presents very important results little if at all known, but of great utility as an introduction to the history of the French wars since Henry IV. The labour required for the compilation of this work has been very great, and the whole is contracted within the narrowest limits.

These researches are intended to form an introduction to a proposed work intituled, A Journal of the first Campaigns of the Revolution, which will be accompanied by a Military Atlas, or collection of Maps and Plans intended to facilitate the study of military operations.

It appears from this work, that at the commencement of a war against the Duke of Savoy, which was successfully terminated in three months, Henry IV. had only a disposeable force of 6 or 7000 infantry, 6 pieces of artillery, and 1500 cavalry. From 1600 to 1609, this was his ordinary establishment. To attack the House of Austria, this prince deemed it sufficient, to raise a force of 50,000 men, infantry and cavalry, including his allies.

Under Louis XIII. the military force was excessively augmented: he had on foot at the same time, five armies amounting in the whole to nearly 100,000 men, including 18,000 cavalry; so that in the war department in 1640 was sunk the sum of 85,559,200 francs, currency of 1805.

In 1670 Louis XIV. intending the conquest of Holland, augmented his troops to 176,097 men. The opponents of France increased the number of their troops in order to counterpoise this force; and Louis was not able in the war of the Succession to make head against 392,223 men. In this number, the troops which Philip V. of Spain might be able to bring in addition to the power of the allies is not included. From a memorial presented to Louis XVI. in 1774 by the Marechal de Muy, it appears that from 1650 to 1789, upwards of 130 years, the peace establishment of the French army had not varied more than about 35,000 men. In 1789 the war expenses amounted to 96,895,645 francs.

In the war of the revolution, in July, 1791, an endeavour was made to raise immediately 243,000 men, and afterwards to complete them to 310,000. By a series of prodigious efforts the force was augmented to 747,545 soldiers, who had joined their colours, and 1,169,144 effective. To understand this distinction, it must be noticed that by *effective*, is meant all receiving pay, as though they were with the army. We may judge of the disorder and mal-administration of the military affairs by comparing the number of those who received pay, and those who had really joined their respective regiments. From the 23d Sept. 1799 to 22d Sept. 1800, the French army in Europe did not exceed 400,000, which number, however, was found sufficient successfully to resist the efforts of the powers combined against France.

In 1802 the French army amounted to 327,751 infantry, and 72,564 cavalry, including the gens d'armes, and 15,000 veterans; total 415,315. At the end of 1804 it consisted of 440,125, of which the gens d'armes, veterans, veteran cannoniers, and fencibles, formed 42,305; these latter classes not being disposeable, the number left for actual service was 397,820, to which force was intrusted the defence of the French frontier, and the garrisoning of various fortified places from the Texel, to the extremity of the Kingdom of Naples; but the author thinks that this force would not be sufficient to carry on a war of this extent, he calculates that an addition of at least 150,000 men would be necessary The expense is estimated at 336,701,750 francs. Two tables are added to this work, one, of the intrinsic value of the pay of the French infantry and cavalry from 1600 to 1805; the other of the war expenses from 1684 to 1718: these tables add considerably to the value of this work. It appears that in the reign of Henry IV. Louis XIII. and the beginning of Louis XIV. the expense of a foot soldier amounted annually to 120 livres only, including his food and maintenance; and even of this sum, the officer through whose hands it passed found means to retain a part, as his perquisite. The expenses of a horseman and his horse, were much more considerable, and amounted to 600 livres: but the cavalry was not numerous, and was chiefly composed of gentlemen who depended on this species of service for support. As the number augmented, the pay diminished, till, excluding the expense of the horse, it only exceeded by one *sous per diem*, the pay of the infantry.

DIDASCALIA.

DIDASCALIA were, properly speaking, records of those dramatic performances which were represented at Athens. They were composed and published periodically. Aristotle is understood to be the inventor of them. They were inscribed on marble or brass, and intended to inform contemporaries, and posterity, of those pieces that had appeared, whether tragedies or comedies, with their dates; and the controversial opinions, especially those committed to writing, to which they gave occasion, and in which the merits or defects of their composition were canvassed. They contained, moreover, the names of the poets who wrote them: distinguishing those which were crowned: the names of the Archons who had presided at their representations; and at what seasons of the year, or on what solemnities. Two fragments of marble, at Rome, contain the only traces of these Didascalia.

It may well be believed, that if an assemblage of these curious records were discovered, it would be deemed uncommonly interesting; but, that being hopeless, we shall adopt so much of the principles on which these ancient records were composed, as may justify our assumption of the title for a department in our work. We mean not to record only, but to examine what novelties our theatre produces, and to revive, if it be possible, those true principles of criticism, which may usefully direct writers who engage in this department of literature.

Criticism, deserving of the name, is equally removed from the mere blandishments of friendship, or the prejudices of favouritism, and from the acrimonious rebukes of ill-nature, or the sullen dogmas of would-be precision. Whoever ventures his labours on the stage is entitled to the praise of boldness, at least, and to every allowance which candour can justly make in his favour. The attempt itself is arduous: the chances against success, however a piece may deserve it, are so numerous, there are so many interests to be consulted, and so many persons to be propitiated, before it comes to the public, that when it is at length on its trial, a predilection in its favour is the pardonable bias of criticism.

On the other hand, there are so many false dependences to which writers have recourse, they adopt so many illegitimate pretensions, deserving no better name than that of subterfuges, that it is proper a little *didascalian* discrimination should recal the drama to reason, and common sense, and shew that its prosperity is in its nature inseparable from true excellence, genuine patriotism, and sound morals.

The public has been sickened with sentimental robbers, and compassionate bloody murderers: nor will the finest moonlights, and the most enchanting scenery, deliver an audience from its disposition to yawn, when the long soliloquy drawls out the praise of virtue and virtuous deeds, by a banditto waiting for his prey, and ready to leap on the unwary traveller, whom he sees advancing to meet his fate. Hitherto the season has produced nothing new. We have therefore only to hint very briefly at

THE OPERA.

Bonaparte has suffered Madame Catalani to quit Paris and visit London; but he has very wisely pensioned her, publicly to the amount of 1200 livres, but how much more, in any other form, we do not hear. This retaining fee is however, not unworthy *his* policy, as a proper recollection of it will not be unworthy ours. If we may judge of the merits of this cantatrice by her success at Paris, they are of the very first order; insomuch, that at an extraordinary concert given by her, before her departure, the first places were 20 shillings, the lowest 10 shillings.

The Opera has also engaged Cherubini, not the celebrated composer of that name, but a singer of merit, we apprehend, in the comic line. As dancers, M. and Mde. Deshayes, are re-engaged for three years: and a permanent engagement is contracted with the ballet-master, M. Rossi.

DRURY LANE THEATRE

Has introduced a new performer in the character of Jaques in *As you like it*. We advise Mr. Eyre to try a less arduous task, and "by gradation rise."

Mrs. Forbes, from the Dublin Theatre, has appeared in Albina in the *Will*. She evinced considerable vivacity, and ease; with talents likely to be serviceable.

COVENT GARDEN THEATRE.

We have noticed with pleasure the attention that has been paid to our immortal bard. Henry the Eighth is a splendid instance, and much praise certainly is due to Mr. Kemble. Mr. Melvin from York has made his debut in the character of Walter in *The Children in the Wood*. His principal faults are too much extravagance, and too little attention to nature. He is capable of becoming a useful performer.

The Beggar's Opera has been selected to display Miss Bolton's powers, which are of a superior kind; she indeed promises to be an acquisition to the vocal department. But could no other play have been found suited to her abilities? Was it necessary to introduce her to the town, *via* Newgate? or have the managers forgot Sir John Fielding's remarks on this Opera?* We also recommend to

* The late Sir John Fielding, once told Hugh Kelly, on a successful run of the Beggar's Opera, "that he expected a fresh cargo of highwaymen, in consequence, at his

them Dr. Colquhoun's advice, which as we mean occasionally to recur to this subject, we here subjoin; "Since recreation is necessary "to civilized society, all public exhibitions "should be rendered subservient to the im- "provement of morals, and to the means of "infusing into the mind a love of the con- "stitution, and a reverence and respect for "the laws."

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office;" and, upon Kelly's being surprised at this, Sir John assured him, "that ever since the first representation of this piece, there had been, on every successful run, a proportionate number of highwaymen brought to the office, as he would shew him by the books any morning he took the trouble to look over them." Kelly had the curiosity, and found the observation to be strictly true.

STATE OF POLITICS.

In the course of a very few weeks, the political face of Europe has undergone no inconsiderable change, but though we may cast a glance of exultation to the coasts of Calabria, and from the remembrance of former connections may regard with some sentiments of pity, the degraded and impoverished state of Holland: the attention of every man must be influenced by other considerations, and fixed to that spot, which contains the armies of Prussia and France.

It appears by the latest accounts from the continent, that hostilities have actually commenced; and though, in nothing more than a rencontre of advanced posts, the advantage was on the side of the Prussians. Thus are we placed on the verge of great events; perhaps, taken in all their consequences, of such as may be ranked among the most important that have ever inspired the hopes or alarmed the fears of mankind. Prussia has at length been compelled to pursue that system, which, if it had been last year adopted, her existence would not now have been menaced, and she might have been contemplating the repose of Europe, in the attainment and possession of which universal blessing, she would have had so large a share. Without venturing to offer an opinion as to the result of the present conflict, we must look forward to the witnessing such a scene of carnage and of horror, which has seldom, if ever, encrimsoned those plains, that have so often smoked with the blood of victims offered to sanguinary Mars. We may, however, venture to assert, as some encouragement to our hopes, that the Prussian army in point of numbers, discipline and spirit is equal to its work. It is commanded by generals, whose spirit, skill, and experience, are known and approved, and whose fidelity is beyond all challenge. The King is with his army to animate it by his presence and his example. Nor is this all: the most enthusiastic patriotism prevails among all ranks, and in every part of the Prussian dominions: the hatred of the French is as universal as it is violent, and every man's ardour to engage in the contest, is sharp as the sword which must conduct him through it. Such is the commencement of this important war, undertaken by Prussia and her allies, among whom the Emperor of Russia is understood to stand conspicuously forward, for no less an object than the peace of Europe. *Quod felix, faustumque sit*, must be the ardent wish of every one who is interested in the happiness of the civilized world.

But the hostilities between Prussia and France, do not alone excite the attention of Europe: the late negociation for peace between Great Britain and France has shared in its regards and expectations. We are now, indeed, perfectly qualified to judge of these weighty matters, by the *Declaration* of his Britannic Majesty, and the *Manifesto* of the King of Prussia which have just appeared: two state papers of extraordinary interest and importance.

His Majesty's Declaration must be highly satisfactory to every part of the empire, as containing a most able, vigorous, and convincing statement of the late negociation. Throughout the whole of it, the governments of the two countries appear in their respective characters. The high political virtues of England, and the low political vices of France, appear strongly contrasted with each other. The suspicion, which seemed to haunt the minds of many, that the present ministers in their eagerness for peace, had compromised the honour and native spirit of the people, is peremptorily removed, and the whole transaction may now be considered by the most jealous Englishman with satisfaction and confidence.

As we give the original document entire, we shall submit the effect which it must produce on our readers, to their own reflections: the good sense of the British nation needs no assistance on such a paper.

When the correspondence which passed between the two governments shall be published; we may know more of the detail, but we shall not be better acquainted, than we now are, with the constituent parts of the negociation. We may then be informed of the reasons which actuated the British government to continue their communications, so long after it must have been convinced, that Buonaparte never entertained the desire of making peace but upon conditions, not only dishonourable to the character, but destructive of the prosperity of the British nation; and that the negociation was proposed merely as a *ruse de guerre*, to delude the continental powers.

The King of Prussia's Manifesto describes in a most impressive manner, and at great length, the whole revolutionary period and its aggressions, down to the present state of Bonaparte's enormous power. It appears from this paper, that his Prussian Majesty discovered soon after the peace of Presburgh, what Europe had long perceived, the error of his conduct. It is acknowledged also, that when Prussia submitted, as it has done, to the influence of France, it was not in a state to resist. With respect to Hanover, it may be seen, that when the Prussian government took possession of that country, it was merely provisional, in order to prevent the French from occupying it. But as it was the object of Buonaparte to embroil Prussia with England, he soon induced the former to assume the sovereignty of the electorate. Nevertheless, incredible as it might appear, if there were any thing however atrocious of which Buonaparte is not capable, the restoration of Hanover was an actual and primary condition associated with the proposition made by the Corsican to enter upon a negociation for peace. In short, from her own statement, there appears to be no other redemption for Prussia, but by a war with France, and may Heaven grant, in mercy to the world, that she may be redeemed, and effect, by her successes, the peace and salvation of Europe.

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DECLARATION OF HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY.

[*From the London Gazette, October* 21, 1806.]

The negociations in which His Majesty has been engaged with France having terminated unsuccessfully. His Majesty thinks proper to make this public declaration to his subjects and to Europe, of the circumstances which have led to an issue which His Majesty deeply regrets. He has no object nearer to his heart, than the conclusion of a secure and permanent peace. He laments the continuance of a war affecting the happiness of so many nations, and which, even amidst all the successes that attend his arms, is so burthensome to his faithful and affectionate people. But he is confident that there can arise on this occasion no other sentiment, either in his own dominions, or in any part of Europe, than that of an increased conviction that the restoration of general tranquillity is retarded only by the injustice and ambition of the enemy.

The French government, unsatisfied with its immense acquisitions on the continent, still openly perseveres in a system destructive of the independence of every other power. War is pursued, not for security, but for conquest; and negociations for peace appear to be entered into for no other object than that of deluding the neighbouring powers into a state of false security, while France is herself preparing, arranging, and executing her unremitted projects of incroachment and aggression.

Her conduct in the recent discussions has afforded but too many proofs of this disposition.

The negociation originated in an offer made by the French government of treating for peace on the basis of actual possession, which was stated to admit of mutual compensation, and a distinct assurance was added, that His Majesty's German dominions, which had been attacked without even the pretence of any cause of hostility, should be restored.

Such a proposal appeared to His Majesty to afford a just foundation for negociating: it was therefore accepted, with this reserve, that the negociation should be conducted by His Majesty in concert with his allies.

No sooner had this basis been mutually admitted, than it was departed from by the enemy, and that too in points of so great importance as to call for an immediate declaration on the part of His Majesty, that unless the principle proposed by France herself were adhered to, the communications which had been opened between the two governments, must at once be closed.

This produced new professions of the disposition of France to make considerable sacrifices for the attainment of peace, if the discussions were suffered to proceed: at the same time that a difficulty was started on account of the want of full powers in the person intrusted by His Majesty with this communication. Steps were thereupon taken by His Majesty for opening a regular negociation by ministers duly authorised, in order to ascertain, in a manner the most satisfactory and authentic, whether peace could be obtained on terms honorable to the king and his allies, and consistent with the general security of Europe.

During these proceedings, a minister sent by the Emperor of Russia to treat for the same important object, in concert with His Majesty's government, was induced by the artifices of the enemy to sign a separate treaty, on terms equally repugnant to the honour and interests of His Imperial Majesty.

Unmoved by this unexpected event, the King continued to negociate precisely on the same principles as before. He relied, with confidence, which experience has amply justified, on the good faith and steadiness of an ally, in concert with whom he had begun to treat, and whose interests he had maintained throughout with the same firmness as his own.

The French government, on the contrary, elated by this advantage, of which it boasted as equal in importance to the most decisive victory, departed in every conference more

and more widely from its own offers and engagements. Not only did it take upon itself to change at its own will the basis of the negociation with Great Britain, but violated in points still more important, every principle of good faith with Russia. The chief inducement offered to that power as the price of all the sacrifices extorted from her Minister, had been the preservation of Germany. Yet, before the decision of Russia on this treaty could be known, France had already annihilated the whole frame and constitution of the German Empire; had reduced under her own yoke a large proportion of the states and provinces of Germany; and not content with this open contempt of obligations so recently contracted, had, at the same time, instigated the Porte to measures directly subversive of her subsisting engagements with Russia.

While such a conduct was pursued towards His Majesty, towards his allies, and towards all independent powers, there appeared so little hope of any favourable issue to the negociation, that His Majesty's plenipotentiaries demanded their passports to return to England.

This demand was at first eluded by an unusual and unexplained delay, and the French government afterwards, by some material concessions, accompanied with intimations that others of still greater consequence might be the result of further discussion, procured a renewal of the conferences, which were protracted from day to day, till at length it was announced at Paris that the Emperor of Russia had indignantly rejected the unauthorised and separate treaty signed by his minister.

In consequence of this important event, the strongest assurances were given to His Majesty's minister, that France was now prepared to make sacrifices to a great extent, in order, by securing peace with Great Britain, to re-establish the tranquillity of the world.

The object of these assurances appeared, however, to be, that of engaging His Majesty in a separate negociation, to the exclusion of his allies: a proposal, which His Majesty had rejected in the outset, and which he could still less admit of at a time when the conduct of Russia had imposed on him an increased obligation not to separate his interest from those of so faithful an ally. To these insidious overtures, His Majesty steadily refused to listen; but he took the most effectual method to avoid all appearance of delay, and to accelerate, if possible, the favourable issue of the negociation. The confidential intercourse which he had constantly maintained with Russia, enabled His Majesty to specify the terms on which peace with that power might be obtained; and his minister was accordingly instructed to state to France, in addition to his own demands, those of his ally, to reduce them into distinct articles, and even to conclude on those grounds a provisional treaty to take effect whenever Russia should signify her accession.

This form of negociation, was after some objection acceded to by France; terms were now offered to His Majesty more nearly approaching than before to the original basis of negociation, but these were still far short of what His Majesty had uniformly insisted on, and was now more than ever entitled to expect; and the decisive rejection of the just demands of Russia, as well as of the conditions proposed by His Majesty in behalf of his other allies, left to His Majesty no other course than that of ordering his minister to terminate the discussion and return to England.

The foregoing short and simple exposition of facts stands in need of no comment. The first overtures which led to negociation were made by the enemy, and they were accepted by His Majesty in the sincerest spirit of peace. Every opening which seemed to afford the most distant prospect of accommodation has been anxiously embraced, nor was the negociation finally broken off, while any hope of a favourable issue could be entertained. His Majesty's demands were uniformly just and reasonable; directed to no objects of personal aggrandizement, but to such only as were indispensably required by the honour of his crown, his engagements to his allies, and a due consideration of the general interests of Europe.

It is with heartfelt concern that his Majesty contemplates the continuance of those evils always inseparable from a state of war; but it is with his enemies that this awful responsibility rests; and for the issue of the contest his Majesty trusts, with confidence to the justice of his cause; to the resources and bravery of his people; to the fidelity of his allies; and, above all, to the protection and support of the Divine Providence.

In contributing to the great efforts which such a contest must unavoidably require, his faithful and affectionate subjects will not forget that all their dearest interests are at stake; that no sacrifices they can be called upon to make are to be compared with the certain disgrace and ruin of yielding to the injurious pretences of the enemy; that with the inviolable maintenance of the good faith and public honour of their country, its prosperity, its strength, and its independence, are essentially connected; and that in asserting the rights, and upholding the dignity of the British Empire, they defend the most powerful bulwark of the liberties of mankind.

MANIFESTO

MANIFESTO OF HIS PRUSSIAN MAJESTY.

His Majesty the King of Prussia having taken up arms for the defence of his people, considers it as necessary to lay before them, and the whole of Europe, the facts which have rendered it his duty to take this step.

The political state of France has, for fifteen years, been the scourge of humanity. That the possessors of uncertain power, who, since the year 1792, have, in rapid succession, been at the head of France, should render their authority only the instrument of war, and seek their security only in the misery of the people, cannot excite great wonder. But the establishment of a more firm government, not possessed by the same necessity, animated anew the hopes of the friends of peace.—Napoleon, invested with sovereign authority, victorious, surrounded by weak states, friendly disposed governments, or conquered and exhausted rivals, had it in his power to chuse a better part. Nothing more remained for him to do for the greatness of France; for her happiness, every thing was in his power.

It is painful to be obliged to say, that the French politics still continue the same; an insatiable ambition was still the ruling character of the French government. Armies and treaties were employed to the same purpose. The treaty of Amiens was scarcely concluded, when the signal for the first acts of violence followed. Two independent states, Holland and Switzerland, were obliged to accept a constitution, which changed them into French Provinces. The renewal of the war was the consequence.

In the mean time, peace still continued on the Continent; the German Empire had purchased it with immense sacrifices. In the midst of this peace, the French troops made an irruption into the territory of Hanover, which had no relation to the war between France and England; they shut the ports of Germany to the British flag, and that they might effect this, seized on Cuxhaven, and took possession of a free state, still more unconnected with the war, than even Hanover itself.

In the midst of this peace likewise was it, that these troops, a few months afterwards, insulted the German Empire in a manner which still more deeply wounded the honour of the nation. The Germans have not avenged the death of the Duke D'Enghien, but the remembrance of this event can never be effaced from their memories.

The treaty of Luneville guaranteed the independence of the Italian Republic. In defiance of the most solemn promises, Napoleon placed the iron crown upon his head. Genoa was incorporated with France; Lucca had nearly a similar fate. Only a few months before, the Emperor, on a solemn occasion, an occasion which imposed on him great duties, had declared before his people, and before Europe, that he wished not to extend further the boundaries of his empire. A treaty with Russia likewise obliged France to provide an indemnification for the King of Sardinia, in Italy. Instead of fulfilling these engagements, he seized on all those territories which could be appropriated to such indemnification. Portugal wished to preserve her neutrality; she was obliged to purchase, with money, some moments of deceitful security.

Thus there remained, with the exception of Turkey, which still remembered the attack on Egypt and Syria, no power in Europe which had not been the object of unprovoked attack.

With these acts of violence was combined a system of insult and contempt. A journal, which announced itself as the voice of the government, was chosen as the chronicle of undisguised attacks on all crowned heads.

Not one of these general attacks and insults was foreign to Prussia; several were intimately connected with her dearest interests; and, besides, the wisdom of that system which considers all the states of Europe as members of one and the same family, which calls all to the defence of each, and points out the danger resulting to all from the aggrandisement of one, was, by experience, sufficiently confirmed.

But it is especially necessary to state what has been the conduct of France towards Prussia, in her immediate relations with that power.

It will be superfluous to enumerate all the good offices rendered to Napoleon by Prussia. Prussia was the first power which acknowledged him. No promises, no threats, could shake her neutrality. For, during six years, she acted as a friendly neighbour; she esteemed a brave nation, which had ever acted generously by her, both in peace and war, and she did justice to the genius of her chief. The remembrance of these times is no longer retained by Napoleon. Prussia had suffered the attack on the Electorate of Hanover. In this she had countenanced an act of injustice, therefore was it her first view to remedy it; she offered herself for it instead of England, upon the condition that the latter should cede it. It must, however, at least, be recollected, that thus a boundary was prescribed to France, which she should not pass. Napoleon solemnly engaged not to invade the neutrality of the northern states, nor offer violence to any of them, and especially not to augment his troops in the Electorate.

Scarcely had he entered into these engagements, when he broke them. Every one knows by what an act of violance Sir Francis Rumbold was seized. Every one knows how the Hanse towns were forced to make co-

tributions under the name of loans, not to their own interests, but entirely as if France had been at war with them. For the first of these injuries the King was contented with an imperfect satisfaction. Of the second he took no notice, the fears of the maritime towns preventing him from making complaints. The King made unexampled sacrifices for peace, and the maintenance of this peace was ever the dearest wish of his heart.

The patience of other courts was sooner exhausted than his. War broke out on the Continent. The situation of the King, with respect to his duty, was now more difficult than ever. To prevent France from augmenting the troops she had in Hanover, he promised to suffer no attack on that territory. From this moment, the whole burden of the relation between France and Prussia turned on this object, without the latter deriving the least advantage from it: and, by an extraordinary chain of circumstances, Prussia, which only wished to act impartially, and remain neutral, appeared to take part against the allied powers. All the advantage arising from this position of Prussia, was entirely for France; and the King was daily threatened with collisions, as formidable to him, as decisively favourable to the plans of Napoleon.

Who could have supposed, that precisely at the moment in which the King gave the French government the strongest proofs of his firmness, a rare example of the faithful fulfilment of the engagements into which he had once entered, should be chosen by Napoleon, to inflict on Prussia the most sensible injury? Who does not recollect the violation of the Anspach territory on the 3d of October of the preceding year, notwithstanding the express remonstrance of the civil government, and his Majesty's ministers? This contest between (which pardons every thing) that integrity which remains true to its engagements to the last, on the one part; and the abuse of power, the insolence inspired by deceitful fortune, and the habit of only reckoning on this fortune, on the other; continued several years.

The King declared to the French government, that he considered all his connections with it as dissolved. He placed his armies on a footing suitable to circumstances. He was now fully convinced that no pledge of security remained for the neighbours of France, but a peace established on firm principles, and guaranteed by all the powers in common.

His Majesty offered the allies to be the mediator, in negociations, for such a peace, and to support them with all his force.

It is sufficient to know the conditions then proposed, to be convinced of the moderation which, at all times, governed the politics of his Majesty in their whole extent. Prussia, at this moment, listened not to the voice of revenge; she passed over the events of the late war, however violent they might have been, since they had been sanctioned by existing treaties. He required nothing but the punctual fulfilment of those treaties; but this he required without limitation. Count Haugwitz repaired to Vienna, where the French Emperor then was.

Scarcely had this minister been there some days, when the whole face of affairs was changed. The misfortunes experienced by the Court of Vienna had compelled it to sign an armistice, which was immediately followed by a peace. The Emperor of Russia sacrificed his magnanimous views to the wish of his Ally, and his troops returned home. Prussia stood now alone on the field of contest; he was obliged to limit his policy by his powers, and instead, as had been his wish, of embracing the interests of all Europe, to make his own security, and that of his neighbours, his first object.

The French Emperor proposed to Count Haugwitz a treaty, in which was stipulated on the one side a mutual guarantee of possessions, the inviolability of the Turkish territory, and the results of the peace of Presburg; and on the other, the taking possession of Hanover by Prussia, in return for the cession of three provinces.

The first part of the treaty promised, at least for the future, an acknowledged guaranteed, and, if Napoleon had so pleased, a firm, political constitution. The results of the peace of Presburg were a general misfortune to Europe, but Prussia sacrificed herself alone when she accepted them; and to place a limit to the inconstant usurpations of France, should the treaty be considered by the Court of St. Cloud as any thing more than words, appeared an advantage: the King therefore ratified this article conditionally.

The second half of the Treaty of Vienna related to an object, the importance of which had been manifested by serious experience. Prussia could not rely on security for a moment; so long as Hanover remained involved in a war, in which that country had, in fact, no concern.

At whatever price it might be purchased, Prussia was resolved that the French should not return thither. She had her choice to obtain this end, either by a treaty, or a war. The cession of three provinces, which had been faithful and happy for a long term of years, was a sacrifice not to be made for any plan of vain ambition; but these provinces would, in case of a war, have been the first sufferers; all the calamities of that war would have pressed upon the Monarchy; while the acquisition of Hanover, could it have been made under less unhappy circumstances, would have been productive of the most valuable advantages to Prussia.

The King, therefore, conceived that he reconciled his wishes with his principles, when he accepted the proposed exchange, only under the condition, that the fulfilment of the same should be deferred till the general peace, and that the consent of His Majesty the King of Great Britain should be obtained.

All the advantages of this treaty were for France. On the one side she received guarantees, which put the seal on her conquests; on the other, she gave what she did not possess, what might be again conquered by the chances of an uncertain war, while, in the cessions of Prussia, she found the means of enriching her allies.

But, between a policy, which will do every thing in its power, and an integrity, which regards its duties, and especially its promises, the contest is ever unequal. The King approached the moment when he was convinced of this by experience: this moment was the most painful of his reign.

It was the affair of France to reject the modifications under which the King had confirmed the Treaty, if she did not approve them. But she avoided doing this, for the whole Prussian army was still under arms. She continued to be lavish of assurances of friendship; she fulfilled the Treaty as far as it suited her; but, when His Majesty wished to reap the only advantages which he had promised to himself from the late negociations, and which were nearest his heart, she suddenly altered her language; the modifications added to the Treaty of Vienna, were now rejected at Paris. Endeavours were made to force Prussia into the most injurious measures: and when Count Haugwitz, who was at Paris, remonstrated against this, the unconditional fulfilment of the treaty was haughtily insisted on, as was the immediate cession of the three Provinces, and the recal of the patent by which the occupation of Hanover was declared provisional. Prussia was required to resign a part of the advantages stipulated, and to shut her ports against the British flag, in the same manner as if the French had returned into the Electorate.

The King at length was perfectly convinced of the true character of the friendship of the Emperor of the French—a soporific draught for a Power which still feels its own strength; an instrument of degradation, and finally of subjection, to every Power which no longer possesses strength.

In the mean time, Napoleon was in possession of every advantage. The Prussian army had returned; his own, after some movements, of no consequence, at which deceived Germany rejoiced prematurely, on some frivolous pretences, established itself on this side the Rhine. The first conflict might produce misfortunes. War, which is not under all circumstances, the greatest of evils, might become such under those then existing. The King determined to continue the part he had hitherto acted, for some time longer. Wishing to preserve his force now, more than ever necessary to Europe; and, at least, to secure the tranquillity of the North, he confirmed the new Treaty. Confidence, however, was not utterly lost. Prussia was convinced, that on the first opportunity to weaken her without danger, she might expect an attack from her pretended Ally; convinced that there is a degree of ambition which nothing can satisfy, which proceeds, without intermission, from usurpation to usurpation, sometimes without a plan, but ever intent on destruction, careless of the choice of means, and employing alike, arms and the pen, violence and oaths. But even with this conviction—so great is the unfortunate superiority obtained by such policy over those who wish only to be just—the King fulfilled all the conditions of the Treaty, with the punctuality of a faithful Ally. It is known what the consequences were with respect to the connections of His Majesty with England. France gained nothing by this; but she triumphed in secret at the thought of having disunited two Courts, the union of which might have been dangerous to her; and what, in the view of France, gave the principal value to her alliance with the King, was, that this allianee isolated His Majesty, since it produced an opinion that Prussia was a participator in the cause of so many misfortunes.

But, not content with this, we shall see in what manner the politics of France, assured that she had now no enemy to fear, believing that she had annihilated Austria, forming a judgment of Russia with equal ignorance and rashness, and blinded by the apparent tranquillity of Prussia, at length threw off the mask, and, despising forms which she had hitherto sometimes respected, openly trampled on all treaties and all rights. Three months after the signing of the Treaty with Prussia, all its articles were violated.

The Treaty had for its basis the *status quo* of the moment in which it was concluded; also the guarantee of the German empire and its states, according to the constitution then established. This truth arises not only from the nature of things; the Treaty had also expressly prescribed to the two powers their duties. The relations in which the peace of Presburg had left his Majesty, the Emperor of Austria, were guaranteed to him; consequently, also, the Imperial crown of Germany, and the rights connected with it. The existence of Bavaria, and consequently the relations which had connected it for so many centuries to the empire, were likewise confirmed by the same common guarantee.

Three months after, the confederation of the Rhine overthrew the Germanic constitution, deprived the Emperor of the ancient ornament of his house, and placed Bavaria, and thirty other princes, under the tutelage of France.

But is it necessary to appeal to treaties, to form a just judgment of this extraordinary event? Previous to all treaties, nations have their rights; and had not France sported with the sanctity of an oath, this act of unexampled despotism would exasperate every mind. To deprive princes who had never offended France, and to render them the vassals of others; themselves the vassals of the French government; to abolish, with a stroke of the pen, a constitution of a thousand years duration, which long habits, the remembrance of so many illustrious periods, and so many various and mutual relations, has rendered dear to such a number of princes, which had so often been guaranteed by all the European powers, and even by France herself; to lay contributions on the cities and towns in the midst of profound peace, and leave the new possessors only an exhausted skeleton; to abolish this constitution, without consulting the Emperor of Germany, from whom a crown was wrested; or Russia, so lately become the guarantee of the German League; or Prussia, intimately interested in that league, thus arbitrarily dissolved. No—wars and continued victories have sometimes produced great and remarkable catastrophes; but such an example, in time of peace, was never before given to the world.

The King commiserated the unfortunate Princes who suffered by these transactions, but he pitied not less those who had suffered themselves to be lured by the hope of gain, and he would reproach himself, should he increase their unhappiness, by judging them with too great severity. Deluded by the reward of their compliance, probably forced to obey commands, which admitted of no opposition; or, if surprised into consent, sufficiently punished by their acquisitions, and by being reduced to a state of vassalage, as harsh and degrading, as their former relations were honourable, they deserve not to be treated by Germany with the utmost rigour. Perhaps, when the magnanimous nation to which they formerly belonged, arises around them on every side, to contend for their independence, they may listen to the voice of gratitude and honour, and at least abhor their chains, when they find they must be stained with the blood of their brethren.

It was not enough that these despotic acts were immediately injurious to Prussia. The Emperor of France was intent on rendering them insensible to the person of the King in all his allied states. The existence of the Prince of Orange was under the common guarantee of the two powers; for Prussia had acknowledged the political changes in Holland only under this condition.—For several years this Prince had expected that his claims, secured by the mutual stipulations of Prussia and France, should be satisfied. The Batavian Republic had been willing to enter into an accommodation, but the Emperor Napoleon forbade it. Neither the recollection of this circumstance, nor the consideration of the ties of blood which united his Majesty to the Prince, nor the declaration twenty times repeated, that the King would not desert the rights of his brother-in-law, could prevent his being added to the heap of victims. He was the first who was deprived of his paternal property.—Eight days before, he had received from the Emperor a letter, condoling with him, in the customary forms, on the death of his father, and wishing him joy on his undisturbed succession to the states of his house. None of these circumstances are unimportant; each throws a light on the whole. Cleves had been allotted to Prince Murat; scarcely become a sovereign, he wished to become a conqueror. His troops took possession of the Abbeys of Essen Werden and Etten, under the pretext, that they appertained to the Duchy of Cleves, though they were intirely territories newly acquired; and there was not the shadow of a connection between them and the ceded province. Great labour was employed, in vain, to give even a colour to this outrage.

Wesel was to belong to the new Duke, not to the Emperor Napoleon. The king had never resolved to give up the last fortress on the Rhine, into the power of France. Without a word, by way of explanation, Wesel was annexed to a French department.

The existing state of the Austrian monarchy, and of the Porte, had been mutually guaranteed. The Emperor Napoleon certainly wished that Prussia should be bound by this guarantee, for in his hands it was an instrument he might employ as suited his politics; a pretext for demanding sacrifices in any contest which his ambition might occasion, when it contributed to his interests. Ragusa, though under the protection of the Porte, was taken possession of by his troops. Gradisca and Aquilea were wrested from Austria, under nearly the same pretexts which had been employed when the French seized the three Abbeys.

In all political proceedings, it was naturally taken for granted, that the new states, formed by France, were states in the proper sense of the term, and not French provinces; but it cost the cabinet of St. Cloud only a word, to deprive them of their independence. The appellation of *The Great Empire*, was invented, and that empire was immediately only surrounded by vassals.

Thus there was no trace of the treaty left; yet Prussia proceeded to shut her ports against England, and still considered herself as having obligations to fulfil.

The Emperor at length informed his Majesty, that it was his pleasure to dissolve the German Empire, and form a confederation of the Rhine; and he recommended to the King to establish a similar confederation in the north of Germany. This was according to his customary policy; a policy which had long been crowned with success, at the moment of the birth of any new project, to throw out a lure to those courts which might occasion difficulties in the execution of such project. The King adopted the idea of such a confederation, not that the advice he received made the least impression on him, but because, in fact, it was rendered necessary by circumstances; and because, after the succession of the states of the south, which had acceded to the Confederation of the Rhine, a close union between those of the north, became more than ever the condition of their safety. The King took measures to establish this league, but on other principles from those of the model presented to him. He made it his pride to collect the last of the Germans under his banners; but the rights of each he left unimpaired, and honour alone was the bond of the league.

But could France advise the King to any measures which should be productive of advantage to Prussia? We shall soon see what is to be expected when France makes professions of favour.

In the first place, care had been taken to introduce into the fundamental statute of the Confederation of the Rhine, an article which contained the germ of all future innovations. It provided, that other princes should be received into this Confederation, should they desire it. In this manner, all relations in Germany were left indeterminate; and, as means were still reserved, by promise or threats, it was but too probable, that in time this Confederation would be extended to the heads of the Prussian monarchy; and that this might no longer remain doubtful, but be manifest to every one, the first attempt was immediately made. Fortunately, it was made on a Prince who knows not fear, and considers independence as the higher object of his ambition.

The French minister at Cassel invited the Elector to throw himself into the arms of his master. Prussia, it was alleged, did nothing for her allies! It is true, Napoleon knows how to manage his better; and every one sees, that Spain and Holland, the Kings of Wirtemburg and Bavaria, have to thank their alliance with him for peace, independence, and honour.—Prussia did nothing for her allies. Napoleon, on the contrary, would reward the accession of the Elector by an enlargement of his territory. And this treachery was exerted towards an ally, and at the very moment when the King was advised to form an alliance, of which Hesse was to be the first bulwark; endeavours were made to detach from him a power, whom family connections, alliances, and relations of every kind, united in the closest manner to His Majesty's person.

But even these hostile steps were not sufficient. Does any wish to know what was the lure by which it was hoped to gain the Elector of Hesse, and what was the augmentation of territory, with the expectation of which he was flattered! It was the Prince of Orange, the brother-in-law of the King, that Prince, who had been twice deceived in the most shameless manner, who was now to be robbed the third time. He still possessed the territory of Fulda. This was promised to the Elector; and it would have been given, had the Elector consented to accept it, and had Prussia not taken up arms.

His Majesty saw the system of usurpation advance every day. He saw a circle, continually becoming narrower, drawing round him, and even the right of moving within it, beginning to be disputed with him; for a sweeping resolution forbade a passage to any foreign troops, armed or not armed, through the states of the Confederation. This was to cut off, contrary to the rights of nations, the connection between the detached Hessian provinces; this was to prepare pretexts on which to act; this was the first threat of punishment aimed at a magnanimous Prince, who had preferred a defender to a master.

But even after this, His Majesty cannot reflect on it without admiration, the King considered whether a combination might not be found, which should render this state of things compatible with the maintenance of peace.

The Emperor Napoleon appeared to be solicitous to remove this doubt. Two negociations were then carrying on at Paris; one with Russia, the other with the English ministry. In both these negociations, the intentions of France against Prussia were evidently manifested.

By the treaty which the Emperor of Russia had refused to ratify, France offered in conjunction with Russia, to prevent Prussia from depriving the King of Sweden of his German territories; yet, for many months, the cabinet of St. Cloud had continually pressed the King to seize those states, with a threefold view; first, to revenge himself on the King of Sweden; secondly, to embroil Prussia with all other powers; and, thirdly, to purchase her silence with respect to the subversion of southern Germany. But the King had long been aware that such were the views of France,

and his unfortunate dispute with Sweden, was painful to him. He had, therefore, been careful to provide against every suspicion of self-interested motives, and he confided his explanations to the Emperor Alexander. [The scene now again changed, and Napoleon, who had so long been the enemy of the King of Sweden, was suddenly transformed into his protector.

It is not superfluous to remark, that in this insidious treaty of the French Emperor, in order to satisfy the honorable interest which the court of St. Petersburgh took in the maintenance of the rights of the King of Naples, he promised the latter an indemnification, engaging to prevail on the King of Spain to cede to him the Balearic Islands.

He will act in the same manner with respect to the augmentations of territory he pretends to bestow on his allies.

These were all preludes to the steps he took against Prussia. We now approach the moment which determined His Majesty.—Prussia had hitherto derived nothing from her Treaties with France, but humiliation and loss; one single advantage remained; the fate of Hanover was in her power, and in her power it must remain, unless the last pledge of the security of the North were annihilated. Napoleon had solemnly guaranteed this state of things; yet he negociated with England on the basis of the restoration of the Electorate. The King is in possession of the proofs.

War was now, in fact, declared; declared by every measure taken by France. Every month produced a new notification of the return of his army; but on one frivolous pretext or another, it was still continued in Germany; and for what purposes? Gracious Heaven! to eradicate the last trace of sovereignty among the Germans; to treat Kings as Governors appointed by himself; to drag before military tribunals, citizens only responsible to their own governments; to declare others outlaws, who lived peaceably in foreign states under foreign sovereigns, and even in a capital of a German Emperor, because they had published writings in which the French Government, or at least its despotism, was attacked, and this at the time when that same government daily permitted hired libellers to attack, under its protection, the honour of all crowned heads, and the most sacred feelings of nations. These armies were in no manner diminished, but continually reinforced and augmented, and continually advanced nearer to the frontiers of Prussia, or her allies; till they at length took a position which could only menace Prussia, and were even assembled in force in Westphalia, which certainly was not the road to the mouths of the Cattaro.

It was no longer doubtful that Napoleon had determined to overwhelm Prussia with war, or to render her for ever incapable of war, since he was leading her from humiliation to humiliation, till she should be reduced to such a state of political degradation and feebleness, that, deprived of every defence, she could have no other will than that of her formidable neighbour.

The King delayed no longer. He assembled his army. General Knobelsdorff was sent to Paris, with the final declaration of His Majesty. Only one measure remained which could give security to the King, which was the return of the French troops over the Rhine. The time for discussion was past, though the Cabinet of St. Cloud appeared still desirous to protract it; General Knobelsdorff had orders to insist on this demand: it was not the whole of the King's just demands, but it was necessary that it should be the first, since it was the condition of his future existence. The acceptance or refusal of it must shew the real sentiments of the French Emperor.

Unmeaning professions, arguments, the real value of which were known by long experience, were the only answer the King received. Far from the French army being recalled, it was announced that it would be reinforced; but, with a haughtiness still more remarkable than this refusal, an offer was made that the troops which had advanced into Westphalia, should return home, if Prussia would desist from her preparations. This was not all: it was insolently notified to the King's Ministers, that the Cities of Hamburgh, Bremen, and Lubeck, would not be suffered to join the Northern Confederation, but that France would take them under her protection; in the same manner as, in the other Confederation, she had given away cities, and promulgated laws, without permitting any other power to make the least pretension. The King was required to suffer a foreign interest to be introduced into the heart of his Monarchy. Another contrast of conduct incensed the King to the utmost. He received from the Emperor a letter full of those assurances of esteem, which, certainly, when they do not accord with facts, are to be considered as nothing; but which the dignity of Sovereigns renders a duty to themselves, even when on the eve of war; yet, a few days afterwards, at a moment when the sword was not yet drawn, when the Minister of the Emperor endeavoured to mislead those of the King by assurances on assurances of the friendly intentions of France, the *Publiciste* of the 16th of September appeared with a diatribe against the King and the Prussian State, in a style worthy of the most disgraceful periods of the revolution, insulting to the nation, and what, in other times than ours, would have been considered as amounting to a declaration of war. The King can treat slanders that are merely abu-

sive, with contempt; but when these slanders contribute to explain the real state of things, it would be unwise to treat them merely with contempt.

The last doubts had now dissappeared; troops marched from the interior of France towards the Rhine. The intent to attack Prussia was clear and certain. The King ordered a note to be transmitted by General Knobelsdorff, containing the conditions on which he was ready to come to an accommodation. These conditions were—

1. That the French troops should immediately evacuate Germany.

2. That France should oppose no obstacle to the foundation of the Northern Confederacy, and that the Confederacy might embrace the larger and smaller states, not included in the fundamental act of the Confederation of the Rhine.

3. That a negociation should immediately be commenced for the adjustment of all differences still in dispute, a preliminary article of which should be the restoration of the Abbeys, and the separation of the town of Wesel from the French Empire.

These conditions speak for themselves. They prove how moderate the King, even at this moment, has been in his demands, and how much the maintenance of Peace, if France wishes Peace, depends upon France herself.

The term peremptorily fixed by the King for the decision of peace or war has elapsed. His Majesty has not received the answer of the Cabinet of St. Cloud, or rather the preparations he sees around him, daily give him that answer. The King can henceforth confide the honour and safety of his crown only to arms. He has recourse to them with pain, since a glory, purchased by the tears of his people, was never his wish; but he has recourse to them with the tranquillity of confidence, since his cause is just. The King has carried his forbearance to the utmost limit, and till honour forbade him to carry it farther. The King has overlooked every thing, only personally injurious to himself; he has disregarded the decisions of ignorance, and the attacks of calumny; always hoping that he should be able to conduct his people, without injury, to that period which must sooner or later arrive, when unjust greatness shall find its bounds; and ambition, which obstinately refuses to acknowledge any limits, shall at length overleap itself.

His Majesty takes up arms, not to gratify a long-nourished resentment, not to increase his power, not to disturb a nation which knows how to esteem itself, in its natural and lawful limits; but to protect his monarchy from the fate which is prepared for it, to maintain the people of Frederic in their independence and glory, to deliver unfortunate Germany from the yoke under which it lies, and to obtain an honourable and secure peace. The day on which he shall effect this, will afford the King his noblest triumph. The events of the war which is now beginning, are in the disposal of Supreme Wisdom. The King leaves to others premature boastings, as he has long left to them the miserable enjoyment of their base invectives and unanswered calumnies. But he leads to honourable combat, an army worthy of its former glory. He reigns over a people of whom he may be proud; and while he is ready to shed his blood for them, he knows what he may expect from their energy, and their affection. Princes, the honour of the German name, confiding in his gratitude and integrity, and who, while they fight by his side, fear not to obtain the victory, have joined their banners to his. A Sovereign, who adorns with his virtues one of the first thrones in the world, is penetrated with the justice of his cause. The voice of nations every where invokes a blessing on his arms; and, even where it is overawed into silence, is only more distinctly heard. With so many motives to be conscious of her strength, Prussia may well be permitted to repose confidence in her high destiny.

From the Head-Quarters at Erfurth, October 9, 1806.

In addition to this Manifesto addressed to the Governments of Europe, his Prussian Majesty has issued a Proclamation particularly adapted to the present state and disposition of his army: which breathes the same spirit as the foregoing composition, recalls to their recollection the acknowledged military fame of the Prussian troops, and the expectation formed by all Europe of being delivered from the French yoke by their valour, as "the "last support of all liberty, political existence, "and order."

"That the army have long wished for war, has not escaped his Majesty's notice; and if, owing to considerations arising from the circumstances of the moment his Majesty has not sooner yielded to their wishes, he has nevertheless not been inattentive to them, because he is convinced that the voice of honour and of patriotism, which the army have always publicly manifested, have alone inspired them with these sentiments. The whole nation has already exhibited the lively interest which it takes in this war; and it is a great consolation to his Majesty, to think, that the events which are about to take place, are not only unavoidable, but that they have also the general assent of his people." . . . . .

Public opinion hesitates extremely in regard to what may be the conduct of Austria in the present critical circumstances of Germany. There can be no difficulty in divining what must be the wish of the Emperor of Austria, but the power, and the means of accomplishing that wish, are not easily pointed out. While money continues to be the sinew of war, the want of it will shackle the operations of this power, and that this want is severely felt, the Emperor has explicitly confessed in the following official document.

FINANCE PATENT OF THE EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.

The Finance Patent published by the Emperor of Austria commences by stating, "that a series of calamities, which the inscrutable wisdom of Providence has permitted to attend that Monarch's reign during fifteen years, has not so much afflicted the Royal breast as the present necessity which compels him to lay fresh burthens upon his people, for the purpose of assisting the weakness of the State, and removing the evils which remain as the natural consequence of the late wars.

"These wars, which have succeeded each other with little intermission (it is observed) have been more expensive than any that the Monarchy has ever undertaken. The expense of each campaign has far exceeded the sum total of the usual annual revenue of the State.

"The resources of foreign loans, to which the Emperor's ancestors had recourse, it is remarked, were rendered useless by the change which had taken place in political relations; and the operations of domestic loans were found to be too slow, and in their issue too uncertain; so that even this could not be made to cover more than the fourth of the expenditure of a single campaign; and therefore to provide for the rest of the necessary expenses merely by forced loans, and extraordinary imposts, would have been destructive of the well being of the subject—especially when a succession of bad harvests had produced a dearth, and when several thousands of hands had been taken from the plough, and from the work-shops of the mechanic; and, lastly, when the restrictions upon commerce and the arts had imposed new limitations upon the revenue.

"In this situation nothing remained to the government but the increase of paper, which, with the yearly accumulation of the interest, tended to multiply the exigencies of the State; and this, it is observed, notwithstanding the limitations already introduced into every branch of the public expenditure, and other reforms which the Monarch has in view, is still inadequate to the competency requisite to the support of the State.

"Such a crisis (it is added), unless met with firmness, and combated with resolution, must augment the danger both of the sovereign and the subject. The Emperor, therefore, not doubting of the fidelity and patriotism of his hereditary States, expresses the same confidence in his subjects in Transylvania and Hungary."

The Emperor concludes with acknowledging the regret which he feels in consequence of being compelled to lay fresh burthens upon his faithful people; and observes, that the magnitude of the evil, demands a quick and active remedy. He therefore in the first place proposes to remove the most pressing of these calamities, viz. the overflow of the Vienna Bank Bills, and to establish a fund for their recal and total annihilation. The Patent afterwards proceeds to state the conditions of the new loan, and also that the new duties upon salt, tobacco, postage of letters, &c. are only to remain in force five years. The revenue arising from these duties, is to be solely appropriated to the raising of a fund for the liquidation of the Vienna Bank Bills.

It is likewise stated, that the tax on gold and silver plate, the use of which has uncommonly increased among all descriptions, is also calculated to introduce current coin in the room of paper, and to restore the government paper to its original value.

The Emperor admits that he cannot yet entirely excuse the Provinces from contributions in kind for the support of the military; however, he is willing to relieve them from that which has been the most burthensome,—namely, the contribution of corn: a tax in lieu of this is very shortly to be brought forward. A stamp upon various kinds of ware is also agreed upon.

By the means of the present Patent, and the assistance of his kingdom of Hungary and the Dukedom of Transylvania, and in consequence of his Majesty's exertions to preserve the continuation of peace inviolate, for the happiness of his crown and the nations entrusted to him by Providence, and of his desire of which he had lately given an irrefragable proof, his Majesty hopes, under the protection of the Almighty, to arrive at a happier state, and to witness the much wished-for period when he shall be enabled to enjoy the consolation of removing those heavy burthens from the shoulders of his subjects, which an unforeseen occurrence of untoward events have obliged him to lay upon them.

On the 1st of September an Excise Duty was also to be laid upon all fresh fowl, game, and wine, brought into Vienna.

A nation is worthless which does not joyfully stake its all in support of its honour.

HISTORICAL

HISTORICAL MEMOIR OF PRINCE MENZICOFF, FAVOURITE OF THE CZAR PETER I.

Translated from the Œuvres Choisies of M. de la Harpe.

THE elevation of Menzicoff was not one of those caprices of fortune, which are so common in the old and corrupt monarchies, where men without the least merit attain, by petty intrigues, to high situations, maintain themselves there by the very means which prove their disqualifications, men who are displaced by competitors of inferior talents, and who bear with them into retirement their accumulated riches and wearied spirits, the regret of what they have been, but unaccompanied with the least remorse for what they have done. If, in such courts as these, where it is the general interest to discourage superior abilities, the talents of a mere courtier may become powerful springs of action; it will not be so at a period when a great man is seen upon the throne, and impressed with an anxious desire to free from a state of barbarism a rude and uncultivated people; he calls none to his aid, but such as have strength to forward his work; and he, who during twenty years, was the prime minister of the Czar Peter, was certainly an uncommon man.

If it was chance that, in his early years, placed him near his sovereign; it must have been to his merit that he was indebted for the high degree of favour and of power which he attained. He rendered important services, and he committed great faults: he was recompensed for the former, and he was punished for the latter; but, after having abused his prosperity, he bore, as became him, the weight of his adversity. He discovered no mental weakness, no change of character. His repentance, which was sincere, was that of a man capable of passing judgment upon himself, and he evidenced that he had not been inferior to his fortune; because he proved himself superior to his disgrace.

It is not known from whom he derived his origin, or what was the condition of his parents; whether he was the son of a domestic in the imperial palace, as some have believed, or of a soldier, according to the tradition of others. But, be that as it may, there can be no doubt of his having found the means, at a very early period of his life, to introduce himself to the knowledge of the Czar Peter I, since that prince appointed him to serve in a corps which he was then forming on the model of European troops; and afterwards became the first regiment of guards, Préobrazinski. Le Fort was captain of this troop; the Czar was himself the drummer; and Alexander Menzicoff was first enrolled as a private soldier. The youths, which composed this body, were called *les poteschni*, or the promoters of diversion, because they formed the intimate society of the youthful emperor, and contributed to his amusements. It is said, that one of their common sports was to imitate the cries of the itinerant venders of articles in the streets; and as Menzicoff chose to be a retailer of pastry, it probably caused the report, among many others respecting his origin, that he was the son of a pastry-cook.

The education of Alexander had been very much neglected: it has been confidently said, indeed, that he never was acquainted with the alphabet. The baseness of his origin must not however be inferred from thence; as it was not uncommon, previous to the reign of Peter, for the Russian nobles to be equally uninformed. The distance is immense between this state of ignorance and the letters of Catherine to Voltaire, though the road which has approximated them was very short. It must, nevertheless, prove to those who have not a sufficient confidence in the future, what a nation can do, when the master of it has taken the first step.

Though deficient in point of education, Alexander Menzicoff possessed a good natural understanding, agreeable qualities, a cheerful disposition, and that easy freedom of manners which were suited to a prince of the age and character of the Czar. Being thus chosen as the constant companion of his master, he never more quitted him, whether at Krémelind the imperial palace of Moscow, or at Préobrazinski, a country house where Peter exercised his encreasing corps, which has since borne the name of that place. From this period, there arose an intimate connection between the sovereign and the subject, naturally leading to that durable attachment and decided preference, which afterwards enabled the object of them, to arrest, in their course, the justice and the anger of the emperor, which were equally terrible.

The lively qualities of his young favourite at first amused him, but when his own reason strengthened, and his understanding became more enlightened, the Czar estimated more and more highly the talents of Menzicoff. He confided to him all the ideas which already occupied his mind. It is also a matter of general belief, that he took him to the council, and that the courtiers who remarked this commencement of royal favour, not feeling the least apprehension of so young a man, thought rather how they might profit of the ready access he had to his master, than of attempting to lessen an influence, of which they had not the least suspicion. His credit, however, was greatly increased by an important service which some years after he had an opportunity of rendering to his sovereign.—It was by a mere chance, that he discovered one of those conspiracies with which this prince was threatened. It is well known, to what storms and dangers his early youth was exposed, under the guardianship of his sister,

the princess Sophia, who aspired to the throne, and fomented the spirit of revolt and sedition among the insolent and savage militia of the Strelitz. It was in one of these insurrections that the Czar saw his maternal uncle Nariskia massacred, and risked his own life. At length the design was formed to assassinate him at the imperial palace of Krémelin, and to place the princess Sophia on the throne.

Menzicoff was so fortunate as to discover the very first symptoms of this horrid plot.—He instantly made the Czar acquainted with the danger that threatened him, when the young prince, for he was then no more than seventeen years of age, took the necessary measures to seize the conspirators, who were consigned to the extirpating hand of the executioner.

But Peter, in advancing his favourite, never deviated, at least in the military employments which he conferred upon him, from that regular gradation of rank to which he himself submitted. He first made him a lieutenant in the company of bombardiers attached to the regiment of Préobrazinski guards, and Peter took a commission in the same company, which rendered him subordinate to his friend. It is a very singular circumstance in history, that a monarch had sufficient strength of mind to conceive, that emulation, being a very powerful spring of human action, would receive an irresistible impulse, if he appeared himself to be more delighted with a common command, which he should have attained by his merit and his actions, than with the throne itself, for which he was solely indebted to the accident of his birth. Thus he acquired the right of reserving all his favours exclusively to talents and to services. It was indeed the great secret of his politics to persuade his subjects, that a man might rise from the lowest condition to the highest situation, by proving himself worthy of it; and that no rank, however elevated, could save from chastisement the man who had deserved it. Gratitude alone could disarm his justice, for he never forgot any service which had been rendered him.—If therefore it should be asked what means he employed to accomplish such great things? it may be answered—that he had acquired the true science of kings:—how to inflict punishments and to confer rewards.

While Charles XII. was inebriated with the vain and transient glory of giving to Stanislaus the territories of Augustus, Peter extended his empire by solid and lasting conquests. He united to it the finest provinces of the Gulf of Finland, Livonia, Carelia, Estonia, and Ingria. The chief place of the latter was Notebourg, which he afterwards named Shlusselbourg, because it is the key of Ingria and Finland. Menzicoff distinguished himself at the siege of this place, and the Czar presented him with the government, to which he afterwards added that of the province, with the dignity of a prince, the rank of major-general, and the blue ribbon of St. Andrew. He also took the title of Prince Menzicoff; because, in Russia, the titles spring from the persons of those who bear them, and not from their territorial possessions.

Menzicoff had already displayed military talents, by no means inferior to the rewards which he had received. Being intrusted with a particular command, he had beat several bodies of Swedish troops, at a time when the soldiery of Charles XII. were considered as invincible, and when the Czar saw the king Augustus at Chokzin, a fugitive and despoiled of the crown of Poland, he was indebted to Menzicoff for the pleasure of presenting to his unfortunate ally the colours taken from their common enemy; and the first pledge of the promise he then made to that prince, to restore and to avenge him.

It was not only in war that Menzicoff was serviceable to his master: he had acquired knowledge of various kinds, which enabled him to second the designs of Peter, who was occupied in embellishing and fortifying his territories, at the same time that he was combating his enemies. Already Petersburgh was rising into grandeur, the particular object of the Czar's ambition, and the favourite work of his reign. Possessed at length of the provinces which border on the Baltic, he determined to fix the seat of his empire, in the midst of his new conquests, and consequently bring it nearer to the rest of Europe, from which his vast possessions in the distant parts of the north and the east had removed it.—The superintendance of this grand monument placed at the mouth of the Neva, and which was to bear the name of its founder, had been confided to the care of Menzicoff in the absence of the Czar, when other enterprizes called him away. It was even Menzicoff who erected, after the wooden model directed by Peter himself, the fort of Cronstadt on the shore of the Baltic, whose foundations were laid in the sea, and which was intended to serve as a suburb to the rising city of Petersburgh.—From day to day did he increase in favour with his master; but his glory kept pace with it. Fortune, which seemed to furnish him with brilliant opportunities of acquiring renown, had conducted the king Augustus to Menzicoff in Pomerania, where he commanded the troops of the Czar. The dethroned monarch being then reduced to the two-fold humiliation of having no other asylum but the Russian camp at the very time when he was treating secretly for his abdication with Charles XII. Menzicoff, who was altogether ignorant of this negociation, had the Swedish General Mandlerfeld in front of him, and he gave him battle near Kalish, October 19, 1706; nor did Augustus dare to utter a word

in opposition to it. The Russians gained a complete victory, killed four thousand of the enemy, and made two thousand six hundred prisoners. This victory, however, caused no alteration in the treaty between Augustus and Charles, whose ascendancy still prevailed in Poland; but that circumstance did not lessen the honour acquired by Menzicoff, in having defeated the Swedes in a pitched battle, an honour which the Russians had enjoyed but once since the commencement of the war, under General Sheremetof, whom Peter, as a reward for that exploit, had ordered to make a triumphal entry into Moscow.

The Czar was at this time too much occupied in his plans to repulse Charles XII. who was advancing towards Russia, to send Prince Menzicoff to receive a triumph at Moscow, which was three hundred leagues from the theatre of the war. He had too much occasion for his services to spare them for a moment: so that instead of the pomp of a triumph, he offered him the first of all rewards, an opportunity to acquire new glory; and he soon enjoyed that of contending in person with Charles himself between the Boristhenes and the Desna, on the frontiers of the Ukraine. Menzicoff, at the head of the Russian cavalry, fell upon the Swedish advanced guard, and threw it into disorder; while Charles, in repulsing the Russians, which he did with great difficulty, put his life in continual jeopardy. He, however, continued to advance into the Ukraine, where he expected to be joined on one side by the Cossack Mazeppa, and on the other, by General Levenhaupt, who was on the march with a very considerable army and a large supply of stores and ammunition. The Czar, having been joined by Menzicoff, marched forwards to meet Levenhaupt, one of the ablest generals in the service of Charles XII. A very bloody battle accordingly took place near Lesnau, which continued during three days, and where Levenhaupt lost one half of his soldiers, seven pieces of artillery, and forty-four stand of colours. It was with great difficulty that he could join the king with half the conquered army. But notwithstanding his loss, he was enabled to give very considerable support to Charles. He was master of Bathurin, a strong place of the Ukraine, and abundantly provided with all kinds of stores. Thither he had taken his route, in order to recruit his army with whatever it wanted, and to open the way for him to Moscow. It was there that Menzicoff rendered a more essential service to his master, than all which he had previously performed, and to which the Czar considered himself as indebted not only for his preservation, but his crown. They were about a hundred leagues from Bathurin, when Peter, who watched the motions of the Swedish monarch, could neither advance upon him, nor tell whither he was going. The active intrepidity of Menzicoff preserved the Czar from this danger. There were some Russian regiments dispersed about the vicinity of Bathurin: he accordingly quitted the imperial army with very few attendants, took a bye route, not even known to the Swedes, pursued his journey with incredible alacrity, contrived to assemble all the Russian troops he found in their different quarters, put all the infantry on horseback, sent the artillery onwards by post horses, stormed the town of Bathurin, mounted the ramparts sword in hand, and having carried them, plundered the place and reduced it to ashes. Arms, provisions, stores, were all carried off, and Charles was forced to go and lay siege to Pultava, before which place he found the rock on which was dissipated that astonishing and rapid fortune that resembled a storm in its terrible effects and its transient duration.

Menzicoff, who had contributed to the victory of Lesnau, had the glory to achieve that of Pultava. He commanded the Russian army for two months, during the absence of the Czar. On the day of battle, he cut off a corps of six thousand men from the Swedish army, and compelled them to lay down their arms: and it was he who pursued General Levenhaupt to Pérévolotma, forced him to capitulate and yield himself a prisoner of war, with fourteen thousand men, the sole remains of that army of Charles XII. which had hitherto been considered as invincible, and made Saxony, Poland, and Russia tremble, and had carried its terrors from the gates of Leipsick to the ramparts of Pultava.

No rewards could be too great for such services; and they were lavished upon him. He was now advanced to the rank of field-marshal and the place of first senator, which is most eminent in the civil administration; he was also at the head of every department of the public affairs, and was decorated with the most distinguished orders of Russia. His credit, his power, and his riches were unlimited. The emperor who abridged his own grandeur to enrich his favourite invested him with immense possessions. They were scattered throughout every province of the Russian empire, and he could travel from Riga in Livonia, to Derbent on the frontiers of Persia, and sleep every night on an estate of his own. A hundred and fifty thousand families constituted the number of his vassals. In short, when the Czar set off for his unfortunate campaign of Pruth, and when he afterwards made his second tour through part of Europe, he left Prince Menzicoff regent of the empire with absolute dominion.

But he abused his power: and to the picture of his splendid actions must succeed that of his faults. Like many others, he disgrace-

ed the fortune which he at first merited. He knew mankind well, and what use to make of them; but he confined his employments to his own creatures, and looked to no other merit than that which had placed itself under his protection. His tyrannic pride desired to crush all who refused to creep and cringe before him: and he once treated a senator as a rebel and threatened him with the rack, because he dared to deliver an opinion different from his own. Insatiable of treasure, he increased by extortion and by rapine the wealth he had received from the bounty of the Emperor. Complaints, however, poured forth against him from all quarters, and the Czar, on his return from Pruth, appointed a chamber of justice to examine into the malversations practised during his absence. To convict Menzicoff, orders signed by himself were produced, and which evidently proved his robberies and various other acts of injustice. It is said, that he rested his defence altogether, upon his ignorance, and the facility with which he might be surprized into mistakes, by presenting him papers which he could not read; and he threw the whole blame upon the treachery or dishonesty of his secretaries. This excuse, however, it is not very credible. It is not to be supposed that, on his advancement to the high offices of government, he had not learned to read. But, be that as it may, the accusations brought against him were ineffectual, and as it generally happens, his influence increased by the very efforts which were made to destroy it.

The fame of his power being spread through Europe, he was courted by all the foreign princes. The Kings of Denmark, of Prussia, and of Poland, sent him their respective orders, and, knowing his avarice, annexed considerable pensions to them. The Emperor created him a prince of the empire, and gave him the Duchy of Cossel in Silesia. All the German princes, who had any thing to hope, or to fear, from the Czar, became the flatterers of his favourite; they loaded him with presents; and, in spite of the rigid etiquette of Germany, gave him the title of highness. In one word, no private man ever enjoyed such high honours and possessed so much wealth.

Courted as he was by so many sovereigns, and sharing, as it may be said, the empire with his master, he considered himself as superior to all attacks, and protected from every reverse of fortune. He had persuaded himself that punishment could never overtake him. But his pomp and his expenses were beyond the means even of his wealth, immense as it was, to sustain, and he had recourse to all the contrivances with which his power furnished him to amass new treasures.—During the expedition of the Czar into Persia, he carried his avidity to such an audacious height as to debase the national coin, and by that daring measure had threatened the commerce of the country with ruin. This was a capital crime. The public outcry aroused the anger of the Czar, and he openly declared that he would punish the criminal.—It was well known that Peter did not threaten in vain, nor inflict ordinary punishment. Nothing was more remarkable in this prince, than the active and profound sentiment of justice and magnanimity, which sometimes redoubled the natural impetuosity of his character and rendered it more terrible; while, at others, it arrested and disarmed him in the most violent paroxysms of passion. All his emotions were sudden and hasty; nor was the suppression of them less rapid. Various well authenticated examples of this disposition might be cited; but we confine ourselves to those circumstances which relate to Menzicoff. How many times did he call forth the passionate anger of the Emperor against himself, and as often did he calm him with a single word. It appeared, as if he held in his hand the springs which governed that ardent and elevated mind. One day, when the Czar threatened to destroy him, the minister replied,—"And if you do, what then?—You will have the pleasure to destroy your own work," and the Emperor was instantly appeased. Nevertheless when Peter returned from his Persian campaign, Menzicoff sunk at once, from the height of confidence as it were into the very abyss of discouragement and apprehension. He did not even present himself before the Emperor on his arrival at Petersburgh; but remained in his palace, on the banks of the Neva, on the pretence of sickness, which it is not improbable that disquietude and alarm had actually produced. He was in bed when his people announced the approach of the Czar, who had passed the Neva, and had come to pay a visit, with but few attendants, and without any previous notification. He sat down at the head of the bed, and was making inquiries respecting his health; when Menzicoff informed him that his real illness proceeded from the displeasure of his master, which he acknowledged that he had merited. He did not attempt to offer an excuse, and appeared to expect the severest punishment. This confession touched the Emperor. "Alexander," said he, "take courage, you "have indeed committed an heinous offence; "you have almost ruined my country; but I "cannot forget that you have saved it, and "that I am indebted to you for my empire "and my life."

He had already escaped from the menace of imperial resentment after the affair of Stettin, and the very danger which threatened him, had caused the humiliation of his enemies. In 1713, he besieged that capital of Pomerania, which he was at the moment of pos-

sessing, when, seduced by the intrigues of Baron de Goerts, but more probably by a douceur of 400,000 livres, he consented to deliver it into the hands of Frederic William, King of Prussia, on the strength of promises which were never realised. Peter was violently irritated on this occasion; and Menzicoff who had been informed of that circumstance, but who well knew the character of his master, formed a very singular plan of defence and pursued a conduct still more extraordinary. On his arrival he retired to his palace, and did not go to court. The Czar sent to know the cause of his absence; when he haughtily answered, that it was not according to etiquette, for the last person who arrived to pay the first visit. Peter, more exasperated than ever, ordered certain Lords, known to be enemies of Menzicoff, to follow him, that they might witness the humiliation of an insolent and criminal subject. On his arrival, he loaded him with reproaches, and became so irritated as to be on the point of striking him. Menzicoff supplicated his master to grant him a private audience, but it was with great difficulty he obtained it. They then passed into a cabinet, when the minister assuming a more firm tone, "you idolize glory," said he to the Czar, "and I thought that I "had advanced your own: Charles, your rival, "gave away kingdoms; but it was the wish "of my heart that you should do more than "he; and, that one of your subjects should "give away provinces; an honour which "never belonged to any one but to yourself: "is not this far superior to the possession of "a territory so far removed from your king-"dom, that you could not have retained it?" Peter, naturally struck with every thing that was great, was most sensibly affected by this answer: and the favourable impression being once made, Menzicoff found no difficulty in compleating his purpose; and the Emperor returned from this private conference, manifesting the utmost regard to his minister in the presence of those, who certainly looked for a very different exhibition.

It has, however, been generally believed, that with respect to the diminution of the coin, by the favourite, gratitude was not the sole motive to the Emperor's clemency, and that without the protection of the Empress Catherine, he would not have obtained his pardon. The history of that Princess is well known, and her fortune is still more surprising than that of Menzicoff. She was born in Livonia and made prisoner at Marienbourg, when she entered into the service of the Princess Menzicoff. There the Emperor first saw her, and having discovered her superior merit, he raised her to his throne, while her great virtues and eminent talents justified his choice.

It may be generally observed, that the minister entered into all the views of Peter in humbling the great territorial Lords, who had rendered themselves too formidable, by elevating men who made amends for their inferior birth, by their superior merit. It was this principle also which established the credit of Le Fort and Jagozinski who served him in the interior administration as Menzicoff did at the head of his armies.

Peter, as is well known, was an enemy to pomp and exterior display in himself; he therefore employed Menzicoff to play the splendid part of Emperor, while he contented himself with simplicity of appearance, great actions, and domestic freedom. He permitted Menzicoff to reign at court while he reigned for posterity. This minister did all the honours of the court festivals, gave audience to ambassadors, and received the homage due to the Emperor himself.—The magnificence and splendour of his appearance was equal to his character as imperial representative. On some public occasion, the Empress Catherine said jocosely to her husband, "Do but see what a great number of diamonds "decorate the Princess Menzicoff, and your "wife has none at all." The Czar embracing her immediately replied, "my dear friend, "whenever it shall please God that I make "peace with Sweden, I promise, that you "shall have as many diamonds as the Princess "Menzicoff."

Catherine was the constant friend of Menzicoff, and it appears that, in the latter years of Peter's reign, she alone supported him against the people who hated him, and against the Czar himself, who began to lose his predilection for him.—But notwithstanding this protection, it was now become a matter of doubt whether his former services, and the royal favour would be able to maintain him against his enemies and his faults.—But it was not reserved for Peter to punish him; and that great man who was taken away too soon for his country, was spared, at least, the sad and painful office of overturning what he had erected. He died; and Menzicoff being in possession of all his employments, and consequently the most powerful man in the empire, was now in a situation to prove his gratitude to the Czarina. Peter had not taken any measures to regulate the succession. There was a party indeed who supported the claim of the Grand Duke, son of the unfortunate Petrowitz who had been cut off by Peter, but the credit and activity of Menzicoff placed Catherine on the throne. She began her reign by creating him Generalissimo, a rank superior to that of Field Marshal; and expressed her intention to create his son Duke of Courland, which, however, was never fulfilled.

It will be readily believed, that so proud a man as Menzicoff, might make his impor-

tance too irksome to a woman whose sovereignty he regarded as his own work. On the other hand it is not improbable that the widow of Peter the Great would bear with repugnance the weight of obligation to a man, to whom she had extended protection: from this disposition so natural to them both, mutual suspicions arose. Catherine, with all her exterior attentions to Menzicoff, was contriving in secret to cast off the yoke of a too powerful minister: and Menzicoff was labouring to form a support against the party which he had raised among that which he had beat down. He had therefore entered into a negotiation with the court of Vienna to secure the throne, after the death of the Czarina, to the grandson of Peter the great, nephew by her mother's side, to the imperial consort of Charles. This treaty had been just signed by Menzicoff and the Count de Rabutin, imperial minister at the court of Russia, when the Czarina died, after a reign of two years. Hatred, which does not even wait for probabilities in order to suppose crimes; and popular credulity which feeds on accusations of atrocity, did not fail to impute to Menzicoff, a death which happened at a moment so suited to his purposes: the same reports had prevailed on the death of Peter; and it becomes history to reject such odious imputations where they are unsupported by any proof. Besides, whatever failings might be found in the character, whatever errors might have appeared in the conduct of the minister, they were not of a colour to justify such a charge; his mind was superior to such base designs and atrocious misdeeds.

We now behold Menzicoff the master of a third reign, with a more absolute power than he had hitherto possessed, as he had to govern an emperor of only twelve years of age, who owed him every thing. It might be thought that his power was less exposed than ever to revolutions. Fear was the engine of his government; even the young emperor, who regarded him as the protector of his childhood and the avenger of his rights, trembled before him. This able and ambitious minister already sure of a pupil who was attached to him by gratitude shackled him also by terror. With a mind continually reflecting on the misfortunes of his father, and the perils that had besieged his infant years, Peter the Second was perfectly prepared to receive the alarms with which Menzicoff agitated his apprehensive credulity. He considered himself as surrounded with enemies and conspirators; and on that pretext, the minister had sent into exile all those whom he regarded as deserving of suspicion. No one without his permission dared approach the Emperor, nor did the Emperor dare to speak to any one without his concurrence. Menzicoff who did not fear any obstacle, as he did not require any assent, proposed to him, as the only means of establishing the imperial authority on a sure foundation, to create him vicar general of the empire. The patents were accordingly prepared, and they wanted nothing but the signature of the Emperor. Soon after, the projected marriage between Peter the Second and the eldest daughter of Menzicoff was taken into consideration. It was one of the secret conditions of the treaty concluded by the minister of Charles; and Peter in submitting to it, might believe that he did no more than fulfil the wishes of his family and of those who united to secure his succession to the imperial crown. The ceremonials of affiance were celebrated in the most public manner, in presence of the senate and the great officers of the court. No one dared to murmur, and all the discontented persons of whom there was any reason to be afraid, had either retired of themselves, or were removed by the arm of power to some distant residence. The whole passed therefore without opposition; but it was remarked that the ceremony displayed nothing more than a mournful pomp and an ill-omened solemnity; and the only substitute for the joy usual on such occasions, was that which tyranny can always obtain, when it is unresisted, silence and sorrow.

Menzicoff waited but for the marriage of his daughter, and then, being father of the Empress and father-in-law of the Emperor; was he not in effect the possessor of a throne, of which his grand children would be the heirs? He imagined that one step more would conduct him to the pinnacle of greatness; alas! he was at the moment of his ruin.

The Prince Dolgorouki and the Count Osterman, two secret, and consequently two dangerous enemies, were neither the objects of his vengeance nor of his suspicions. They had both experienced his insolence and his injustice, but they had wisely given way to the circumstances of the times, and he either thought them devoted to his interests, or had confounded them with the crowd of those whom he had outraged, but did not fear.

Some time after the ceremonial of affiance, Menzicoff was attacked by a dangerous disorder; and it became necessary to find some one to whom he could safely confide the person of the Emperor. He accordingly placed him in the hands of Prince Dolgorouki, for no other reason, but because he neither loved nor feared him. The latter seized the favourable opportunity and knew how to render it decisive. He called Osterman to assist him in completing the ruin of their common enemy. The young Dolgorouki, son of the Prince of that name, and about the same age as the Czar, was the most useful instru-

ment of the meditated revolution. The young Elizabeth Petrowna, daughter of Peter the great, and aunt of the reigning Emperor, engaged in the plot. Admitted to the intimate society of Peter the Second, who had been hitherto kept under the most severe restraint, they soon inspired him with a desire for a more uncontrouled and agreeable mode of life; while the pleasures and amusements which were every day procured for him, induced him to consider the yoke imposed by Menzicoff as an insupportable tyranny. Menzicoff, when his health was re-established, was greatly chagrined to see the change which had taken place. He perceived that it was become necessary to practise certain compliances; and though he kept the Princess Elizabeth at as great a distance as it was in his power to do, as she was more to be feared than any other, on account of the natural authority she would possess over her nephew, he did not think it prudent to thwart the friendship which the Emperor had conceived for the young Dolgorouki, as he could entertain no suspicion of a boy of his age, and wishing at the same time to make a merit of this act of complaisance. It was with the same view that he consented to conduct the Czar to Petershof, a royal country house at the distance of a few leagues from Petersburgh, and where he was to enjoy, for the first time, the pleasures of the chase. This journey was fatal to Menzicoff. Osterman regarded it as a most favourable opportunity for the execution of the projects which occupied him: and he flattered himself that he should make a profitable use in the capital of those moments which the minister was wasting at Petershof. He communicated his designs to the senators of the highest rank, and to the commanding officers of the guards, and made it apparent to them that the moment was come, when they might dissolve the tyrannical power of Menzicoff, and deliver the Czar and his empire from the baneful influence that oppressed them.—They did not hesitate to join in a revolution which they so much desired. Measures were accordingly taken and the hours were appointed. The officers answered for their soldiers; and the senators under different pretexts, agreed to repair to the vicinity of Petershof to receive the Emperor who was to be delivered into their hands. This was a principal object; and the young Dolgorouki, who had been instructed by his father, undertook to determine Peter to engage in this decisive measure. He slept in the chamber of the Prince; and at midnight he quitted his bed, awakened his imperial friend, and urged him to free himself by flight, from the state of slavery in which Menzicoff kept him. He represented to him that he would never reign till he was removed from the power of that minister, within the walls of Petersburgh, and in the midst of the senate. The Czar did not hesitate a moment, but escaped through a window with Dolgorouki, traversed the garden unobserved by the guard which was placed at the doors of his apartment, and immediately found himself surrounded by the senators and a great number of the lords of his court. He proceeded directly to the capital, and arrived there before the dawn of day.

The flight of the emperor was soon discovered at Petershof, and when the fatal intelligence was communicated to Menzicoff, he received it as if he had been struck by a thunderbolt. Nevertheless, he did not yet despair of his fortune. He hastened to Petersburgh, but, on his arrival every thing he saw confirmed his misfortune. The guard was changed, and the garrison under arms. On addressing himself to some of the officers, he was informed that they had received their orders from the emperor. In this state of doubt and perplexity he proceeded to his palace, where he beheld nothing but solitude and disgrace. No sooner had he entered it, than the place was surrounded by grenadiers, and an officer, at the head of a detachment, presented him with the orders of arrest by command of the Czar.

Having risen through all the degrees of fortune, Menzicoff must now sink through all those of disgrace. He was ordered to retire immediately to his estate at Oranienburgh, but was permitted to carry away all his valuable effects, and to be attended by all his domestics; he still continued also to be treated not only with attention but with honour. His enemies did not yet know to what length they might be able to push their victory and their vengeance, and his former fortune seemed to predominate over their hatred and their authority. The Czar gave no orders respecting him, but such as had been especially demanded; and it appeared that neither Dolgorouki nor Osterman, had sufficient courage to ask for all those which they wished to obtain.

The remainder of that day and the succeeding night were allowed him to prepare for his departure, and he employed the allotted interval with that steady mind and unconquered spirit which never forsook him, and which appeared at this moment to render him superior to himself. Unfortunately he affected also to appear superior to his enemies, and to brave them by a pompous ostentation, instead of opposing to them a modest and tranquil resolution. This was the last of his errors. He took his departure from his palace at noonday, and the cavalcade consisted of his most magnificent equipages, and the most brilliant of them contained his family. His domestics, horses and baggage, formed such a numerous suite, that, in the midst of his retinue, he

had more the appearance of a triumphant warrior returning from victory, than of a criminal retiring into exile. With all this pompous parade he passed through Petersburgh: he saluted with the utmost politeness all those whom he saw at the windows, and if, among the crowds of people assembled on the occasion, he discerned any one whom he particularly knew, he called him by his name and bade him adieu.

It is natural to suppose that his enemies would derive advantage from this imprudent ostentation, and represent it as an insult to the sovereign who inflicted the punishment; but it may be asked, in whatever manner he had conducted himself, would he have been spared? Was it not already determined to pursue him to the last disgrace?—Before he had travelled two leagues, he was overtaken by a second detachment, and the officer who commanded it was commissioned to demand the delivery of the orders of Russia, as well as of those with which he had been honoured by foreign princes. "Here they are," said he without the least emotion, "take back "these proofs of my foolish vanity, I have "collected them all in this coffer, as I had "not the least doubt they would begin with "despoiling me of them; but I ought to "have had them on my person, to have "heightened my humiliation."

It must be acknowledged, that, if his departure from Petersburgh was proud, this language was humbled. But if pride in misfortune exasperates hatred, humility does not disarm it. On his arrival at Trover, a town situated on the road which leads from Petersburgh, to Moscow, he was informed, that orders had been issued to seize on his effects, and to reduce him to the common necessaries of life. His guard was doubled, and the last officer who arrived, informed him that he must descend from his carriage, and with his wife and children enter the waggons which had been sent for their conveyance.—"I am pre-"pared for every thing," answered he in a tone of indifference,—"do your duty; the "more you take from me, the less disquie-"tude you will leave me. I only complain "of those who are about to revel in my "spoils."—He then quitted his carriage, and stepped into the waggon with an air of tranquillity which astonished the officer, and affected the whole troop with sentiments of commiseration.—His train of equipages was sent back to Petersburgh; his servants were discharged, and he proceeded on the journey which had been appointed for him. His wife and children were placed in separate waggons, and he was not allowed the consolation of conversing with them: but when, at any time, he could seize an accidental opportunity of speaking to them; he availed himself of it to exhort them to give way to the storm; to be resigned but not to despair.

In this manner he arrived at Oranienburgh, a small town on his estates, situate between the province of Cazan and that of the Ukraine, at the distance of two hundred and fifty leagues from Petersburgh. But his enemies, to whom all fallen as he was, he continued to be an object of fear and alarm, thought he was still too near them: and, under this impression, Dolgorouki and Osterman, whose authority was absolute, appointed commissioners to institute his trial at Oranienburgh; and he was condemned to finish his days in Siberia, at Beresow in the desert of Jakoutsk, on the river Lena, at the distance of fifteen hundred leagues from Moscow. He was permitted to take eight servants with him; but, previous to his departure he was disrobed of the dress, suited to his former rank, which he had hitherto worn, and was compelled to assume that of the Muscovite peasants. His wife and his children had no indulgence shewn to them; they were cloathed in the same rude uniform; consisting of the coarsest woollen cloth, with pelisses of the coarsest fur, and bonnets of sheepskin.

The Princess Menzicoff, smitten as she was by such rapid and multiplied misfortunes, could not support the horrid and fatiguing journey: she had lost her sight from continual weeping, and expired near Cazan, in the arms of her husband. She was a woman of pre-eminent merit, distinguished by her birth and by her beauty, and whose virtues never relaxed in the brilliancy of her youth and the height of her fortune. Her memory was long held in veneration at the court of Russia, for the sweetness of her disposition, her sincere piety, and her charity to the poor and wretched. Menzicoff dug the grave with his own hands in which he interred her, and he scarce had time allowed him to shed a few tears over it. He now proceeded by water as far as Tobolsk the capital of Siberia.

The report of his disgrace had preceded him thither, and it may be easily conceived that the people there, would expect with no common eagerness, the arrival of a man so famous as he was, who had so long made Russia tremble beneath his power, and was now in a condition to awaken pity in the hardest hearts. As he landed from the boat, two Russian noblemen who had been banished to Tobolsk during his administration, pushed through the crowd and loaded him with reproaches: another still more violent threw dirt in the faces of the young Menzicoff and his two sisters, when the wretched father exclaimed, "it is at me, it is at me, alone, that "you should cast your filth: alas! these chil-"dren have done you no injury."

While he was in the prison of Tobolsk, the viceroy of Siberia sent him five hundred roubles by order of Peter II. for the subsistence of

himself and his family. These he employed in providing every thing proper to assist him in contending with the misery of a desert, where he might otherwise perish for want. He accordingly furnished himself with the necessary instruments of labour, with grain for sowing, pots for fishing, and a supply of salted meat, on which he depended for subsistence, till the place of his abode was brought into a state to produce food. Such cares as these proceed from a well ordered, calm and powerful mind, that will never debase itself by despair, but feels a capacity to do and suffer every thing: it is the proper courage of man; if it be true, that he is born to combat and to suffer.

He now left Tobolsk, but always attended by an escort who never lost sight of him, and in an uncovered waggon, drawn by a single horse occasionally relieved by dogs. It employed five months to traverse the immense deserts of Siberia from Tobolsk to Beresow, in which long journey he was exposed to all the inclemencies of the open air, in such a rude and severe climate; nevertheless his health, and that of his children, experienced no diminution. An unalterable patience supported him throughout, and he never appeared to bend for a moment beneath the rigour of his fate.

It was a singular occurrence, that having been admitted into a Siberian hut for the night, he should see a Russian officer enter it whom he knew, as having served under him, and who was returning from Kamschatska, where he had been sent, during the reign of Peter the great, on a commission relative to the discoveries which Captain Bering had been employed to make on the sea of Amur.—When Menzicoff saluted him and called him by his name, the officer was astonished to find that he was known by any one in that remote region; but vain would be the attempt to describe his feelings when he found that the person who addressed him was Prince Menzicoff whom he had left in Russia in such a state of grandeur and power, as to render it almost impossible that he should be reduced to his present abject condition:—But thus he saw him, and there he beheld his son mending the soles of his boots and his daughters sitting on the ground and moistening in a wooden bowl of milk, the hard crusts of a black loaf. "That young "lass," said Menzicoff, pointing to one of them, "had the honour to be betrothed "to our emperor Peter the Second."

The officer who knew nothing of what had passed in Russia during the period of his absence naturally expressed his astonishment; when Menzikoff related all that had happened to him, from the death of Peter to the moment of his own exile. "You will," added he, "find Dolgorouki and Oster-"man at the head of the government, and "you may describe to them the state in "which you found me. Their hatred may "be flattered by it; but assure them that my "mind is more at large, and far more tran-"quil, than it ever was in the days of my "prosperity."

Arrived at the place of his residence, Menzicoff, immediately occupied himself in mitigating for his children the horrors of their abode by making it yield to his labour all the produce that labour could draw from it. He began by grubbing up a piece of ground sufficient to provide for his immediate necessities: and there he sowed the seeds which he had brought with him. His cabin was very small, but with the assistance of his servants, he contrived to build a habitable dwelling. Each of his children had a separate department in the interior of the house. The eldest daughter who had been betrothed to the emperor, had the care of the kitchen; her sister's employment was to wash the linen and to mend the clothes: and two servants assisted them in the more laborious and fatiguing parts of their work.

He had arrived but a short time at Beresow, when he received a present which was as useful as it was unexpected. It consisted of a bull and four cows in calf, a ram, and several sheep, and a great number of fowls. This was a magnificent gift. These were real riches. But he could never discover from whose hand he received this act of real friendship and benignant bounty.

Religion, which is the last asylum of fallen grandeur and a disturbed mind, appeared to be the principal support and occupation of Menzicoff. He had constructed an oratory, and his house, in its religious offices, resembled a cloister. The whole family assembled daily for public worship; in the morning and at noon; in the evening and at midnight.

He had not been six months in the desert, when his eldest daughter was attacked by the small pox; he was her nurse and her physician, but all his care was in vain; he saw her die as he had seen her mother; and he recited over her lifeless form, the prayers which the Greek ritual prescribes for the dead. She was buried in his oratory, and he marked the place where he wished to be interred near her remains, and which it was appointed by the Being who measures out our days and years, that he should shortly occupy. The disease which had carried off his eldest daughter, was communicated to his other children; he had however, the happiness to see them recover, but it was for a short time that he enjoyed it. Paternal solicitude more painful and afflicting than the fatigue he underwent and the privations he suffered, exhausted his strength; its decay he endeavoured

in vain to conceal. A slow fever brought him to his end. "How happy should I be," said he, at his last hour, "if I had only to "render an account to God, of the period of "my exile." He died in the month of November, 1729, in the arms of his children, exhorting them while the power of utterance remained to him, to remember his errors and to avoid them.

The officer appointed to guard him took the first opportunity of transmitting the news of his death to Petersburgh; and indulged his children with more liberty than they had hitherto enjoyed. One day when the young Princess Menzicoff was returning from the church at Beresow, she was astonished to hear herself called by her name, and to see a man, who, from the lattice of a hut covered with snow, made signs for her to approach. How great must have been her astonishment when she recognised Dolgorouki, the most bitter enemy of her father; and who had been the author of all the misfortunes of her family. Another striking example of the instability of human things! The court of Petersburgh had undergone a total change. Peter II. was dead, and Dolgorouki had contrived by his intrigues to place the Princess Anne, the niece of Peter the first, on the throne, to the prejudice of Elizabeth Pertowna, the daughter of that great man, and who afterwards reigned. The Empress Anne, oppressed by the weight of her obligations to him, and having given up herself and the management of her empire to foreigers, banished Dolgorouki, with all his family to the same Siberian deserts, where Menzicoff had finished his days. He had been treated even with greater rigour than Menzicoff; his wife was already dead; and one of his daughters was then dying. He concluded his narrative by uttering the most horrid imprecations against the empress and her favourites. The violence of his emotions alarmed the princess and she hastily took her leave. When she communicated this adventure to her brother, his vindictive spirit broke forth on the occasion; but the officer who guarded them, threatened to deprive him of the little liberty he enjoyed, if he attempted to insult Dolgorouki in his misfortune, and exhorted him to follow the example of his father.

In a short time after, the minister of the Empress Anne, being informed of the fate of Menzicoff, consented to the return of the children, but more from interest than humanity. All the property of their father had been seized, and in the inventory of his effects, it appeared that he had placed considerable sums in the banks of Amsterdam and Venice; which their respective directors refused to pay to any one but the right heirs of Menzicoff, who must also give legal proofs that they had the entire disposition of their property. The Empress having a desire to make the fortune of Biren, brother of the Count of that name, her chamberlain and favourite, whom she afterwards created Duke of Courland, had it in view to give him in marriage the daughter of Menzicoff, who would now bring a portion amounting to three millions of livres, without the interest. An order for the recal of this unfortunate family was accordingly expedited, and an officer dispatched who had orders to provide every possible accommodation for their journey. On receiving this unexpected news, they, in the first effusion of their joy, proceeded to return thanks to God in the church of Beresow; and as they passed by the hut of Dolgorouki, the young Menzicoff, remembering the lesson which he had lately received, spoke to him in terms of compassion and kindness. When he mentioned that they were free and recalled to court, Dolgorouki breathed a profound sigh, and conjured the children of Menzicoff to forget their former enmity, and interest themselves for him at the court of Petersburgh. "Remember some-"times," said he to them, "the wretches "whom you leave in the desert; we are "sinking beneath the weight of our misery; "look through the lattice we beseech you, "and see my daughter, and my daughter-in-"law borne down by disease, stretched "along on planks, and having no expecta-"tion but to die; they have not sufficient "strength to raise themselves; but refuse "them not the sad consolation of receiving "your adieus.

This spectacle of wretchedness did not fail to excite the most painful and commiserating emotions in the bosom of the young Menzicoff and his sister.—"We do not promise "you," said the prince, "to speak in your "favour at court, as that might be attended "with danger to ourselves; but you may "become the master of that habitation "which we are about to quit; it is provided "with all the necessaries of life; and till a "better fortune is your's, receive this pre-"sent, in the same spirit with which we "offer it."

On the following day they departed, after having paid their last visit to the oratory, and wept once more over the grave of their father. They returned to Moscow with all possible expedition, and were kindly received at court, where they conducted themselves with that modesty and discretion which they had learned in the school of misfortune. The Empress advanced the brother to the rank of captain in the regiment of guards, and married the sister to Biren. It is confidently said, that Madame de Biren always preserved, but unknown to her husband, the peasant's dress which she had worn in her exile. She kept it in a secret place in her apartment, and

found a pleasure in an occasional contemplation of it. She practised, throughout her life, the virtues which her father had displayed only in the time of his disgrace. He declared, indeed, that he never was more happy than in his exile: but, be that as it may,—it may be incontestibly asserted, that he was never so great.

PROPOSITA PHILANTHROPICA.

——homo sum,
Humanum nihil a me alienum puto.

MISSIONARY SOCIETY. Twelfth Report. May 15, 1806.

The missionaries in Otaheite have made no progress in converting the natives. This mission we understand will be withdrawn: The population of this island is diminishing very rapidly: it is thought that four or five thousand is the utmost number of its inhabitants. Such is the effect of that dreadful disease which poisons the springs of life: and of that inhumanity which steels the heart against the impressions of parental affection. In Africa, the Hottentots are attentive; and some appear to be serious: but the character of the Dutch boors, is degraded, by the reports of the missionaries, almost beyond credibility. A mission is sent to Tranquebar. At Madras, the missionaries have received the protection of the Government. At Ceylon, the Hon. the Governor has received the missionaries very favourably. China is in contemplation. This Society patronizes an effort addressed to the Jews.

FUNDS OF THIS SOCIETY.—*Receipts.*			
Balance of last year	252	9	11
Collections, Donations, &c. in London and vicinity . . .	2212	2	10
Ditto in the country	1851	1	9
Exchequer bills sold	2061	9	4
Dividend on 16,000. 3 per cent. consols, one year	480	0	0
Ditto on 5,500. 4 per cent. consols	220	0	0
Ditto on 3,700. 5 per cents. navy	185	0	0
Discounts	11	9	7
	£7273	13	5
Disbursements, June 1, 1806.			
Otaheite	602	15	4
South Africa	1370	19	6
India and Ceylon	1105	0	10
North America	78	18	0
China preparations	290	18	1
The Jews	227	0	11
Gosport Seminary	582	0	6
Edinburgh Missionary Society	110	2	10
Sundries	593	14	11
	4961	10	11
Exchequer bills bought . . .	2226	18	8
Balance	85	3	10
	£7273	13	5

STATE OF THE CATHOLIC RELIGION AND MISSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.—*Translated from the Mercure de France, July* 5, 1806.

In that part of America, which comprehends the states of Connecticut, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusets, and the province of Maine, which belongs to the last-mentioned state, there are as yet but three missions established: the chief of them is at Boston, the other two are in the province of Maine. That at Boston, and that of Newcastle are of a recent date; the other is an Indian mission, established long since by the Jesuits of Canada.

Prior to the American revolution, the catholic religion was proscribed in the province of Massachusets, and almost in every other part of New-England: and although the penal laws, dictated by puritan enmity, at the establishment of the first colonies, were in some measure mitigated: they still continued very severe when the revolution broke out; but at that time, partly from a desire of conciliating France and Canada, and chiefly from policy, and the prevailing philosophical ideas respecting tolerance (which had sprung up among Americans as natural consequences of their principles), a system of universal forbearance was adopted, by virtue of which such laws as were inimical to the catholic religion were repealed in some states, and among others in Massachusets, and its dependencies. In others, the presbyterians have a great superiority, and therefore deprive the catholics, indirectly, of certain civil privileges, and occasion some difficulties in the exercise of the clerical administration, notwithstanding the profession and public exercise of this religion be left entirely free.

However, when the legal obstacles were removed, others still more powerful, perhaps, prevailed; namely, the prejudices against, and abhorrence of the catholic religion, which the followers of Calvin, and of Knox, retained, and which the policy of England had been attentive to promote on account of the vicinity of the French in Canada. The whole people was persuaded that the catholic religion was an abominable perversion, and those who professed it were so many monsters; and, although, the intercourse of the Americans with the French and other European nations, which the revolution contributed to extend, removed or diminished that impression in the minds of a certain number of persons, yet the mass of the people continue to hold it, and it is still predominant in some parts of the interior. The ideas and sentiments which that impression was naturally calculated to produce, prevented most catholics from settling in the country; and others, whom circumstances had brought there, from confessing their religious principles. Even at the period of the French revolution, there were but very few at Boston

and those not known as such, nor did they so much as know one another. Some of them frequented the meetings, to screen themselves from the suspicion of being catholics, and the ridicule which must have followed that suspicion. The revolutionary horrors at St. Domingo, and other French islands, having brought a certain number of French to Boston, they took it in their heads, (from what motive we cannot certainly tell, not from any zeal for religion) to unite with some Irish catholics, and a French priest, formerly chaplain of a frigate, from which he was a deserter, to read in public the catholic service. But the principles and conduct of these Frenchmen, even of the ecclesiastic himself who was a mere adventurer, together with several quarrels and disputes, rendered those assemblies a gratifying spectacle to the curiosity of the Bostonians, and rather conduced to support their prejudices, than to remove them, and to edify the beholders. Nevertheless, these assemblies somewhat emboldened the few catholics resident at Boston, and those who in their hearts had always been attached to that persuasion. They were continued under the direction of a second French ecclesiastic, who, having been interdicted by his bishop, and forced to quit France, had sought a refuge in America, at the time of the arrival at Boston of Mr. Thayer, a native of that place; who after having been a dissenting minister, had been made a convert at Rome. He returned to his country in the capacity of a missionary, well instructed, zealous, courageous, living an austere life, and possessed of every qualification adapted to a similar mission. Both in his sermons and in his writings, even in the news-papers, he gave public notice of his conversion; and of the motives which had been the occasion of it. He challenged the puritan clergy, proposed public conferences between himself and one of their ministers, which latter soon gave up the contest, in a manner that shewed him to have been over-matched. The spirit of this missionary and his success inspired the catholics with confidence, revived their fervour, and even produced a few conversions notwithstanding the calumnies and vexations he had to encounter.

In 1793, the Abbé Matignon professor of divinity at the college of Navarre in Paris, who had long been thinking of performing missions, was induced, on account of the revolution, to begin this new career. He sailed for America, and was sent to Boston, by the bishop of Baltimore. There, besides Mr. Thayer, he met with a French ecclesiastic, of a somewhat doubtful character, who fomented dissentions among the few catholics there; taking advantage of the prejudices and prepossessions which the resentment of the protestants against Mr. Thayer spread, or endeavoured to confirm. Mr. Thayer was then sent to preach elsewhere. The eminent talents of Mr. Matignon, his zeal, gentle piety, disinterestedness, constancy, and mildness, reconciled those who were at variance.; the other ecclesiastic was entirely forsaken, and Mr. Matignon acquired the universal esteem and respect of the inhabitants of Boston, not even excepting the ministers. Fervour and piety prevailed among his adherents; conversions became more frequent, and his flock gradually increased.

In 1796, Mr. Cheverai, late rector of Mentz, after having exercised his ecclesiastical functions with great success in London, went over to America, and spent some time at Boston, with his friend Mr. Matignon, till the bishop of Baltimore had assigned him his appointment. Owing to a concurrence of circumstances, which in the issue appears to have been directed by providence for some happy purpose, the letters were lost; he accordingly was detained, and finally settled at Boston. From the moment the two friends were brought together, the mission was carried on with great success, and rapidly advanced towards the present flourishing state. It is now composed of nearly one thousand catholics; the greater part of them are Irishmen; the remainder Americans who have been converted: it may be said with truth, that the piety and fervour of the greatest number is really edifying.

Those among the Irish who have been driven to Boston by the unhappy condition of their native country, are most of them ignorant, degraded by the abjection to which they were reduced, and still more by the vices and immorality which are consequent on all rebellions; but soon after their arrival the zeal of the missionaries revived in them sentiments of religion; being instructed, their morals were improved, and they became useful, and respectable members of society. The happy influence of the missionaries over that unfortunate class is generally known; and the important service they rendered to the whole town, is repaid with proportionate gratitude.

It is rather a remarkable circumstance that the place where the catholics began to assemble, is a small chapel originally built for the use of the French protestants who had retired to Boston. This protestant congregation, which of late had rapidly declined, happened to be entirely dissolved at the time when the catholics thought of meeting in a body; so that this chapel was vacant. The catholics first rented it, and occupied it constantly till last autumn, when they took possession of the church which they had built.

The erection of the catholic church at Boston is a kind of miracle. The congregation is poor; yet in less than two years, they have

succeeded in collecting a sum of 100,000 francs, in building, if not the largest, at least the finest church in Boston. The protestants, themselves, have subscribed nearly 25,000 francs; and the catholics of the southern states 4 or 5,000. The remainder was supplied by the members of the congregation, who have displayed liberality far beyond what could be expected; it is hardly conceivable that mechanic journeymen, and men of the lowest class, which constitute the mass of the congregation could have submitted to so great sacrifices. The church was consecrated on Michaelmas day of last year, by the bishop of Baltimore. There was a prodigious concourse of protestants present; the first people of Boston assisted at the ceremony, and treated our holy prelate with the greatest regard and civility.

This was a glorious event for our good catholics; and a large gilt cross placed on the top of an elegant steeple, in the centre of a town that was the capital of puritanism, and still more averse to our religion than Geneva in Europe; was indeed a triumph, which a few years before could hardly have been expected, and which would not have been believed, had it been foretold.

The church is built in a good taste, and is very neat inside, but void of every decoration, except a picture of the crucifixion, painted by an American artist. This painting, though very defective, produces a wonderful effect on the good people, and a deep impression in the minds of the protestants. Whilst witnessing those effects, we have often wished that the congregation were in circumstances to procure a better piece from Europe. The ornaments and articles of dress are also very indifferent; but it is not possible to get finer ones in this country. If we could be supplied with some formerly used in those churches of Europe that have been stripped, it would afford us the additional consolation to reflect that those same spoils are subservient to the establishment of our religion in a country where it was proscribed. But the distressed situation to which our catholics are reduced will not allow them to think of extra expenses at present.

Prior to this church being built, the little place where they assembled, could only admit a small number of those protestants who wished to attend divine service, and the preaching; but now we have a great number of them every Sunday. They come with a view of being better acquainted with our mode of worship, and of hearing Mr Cheverai who is reckoned the best preacher, not only in Boston, but throughout the United States; and I must confess I never heard one who produces more effect. His eloquence is brilliant, sweet and persuasive. Several persons who had, through curiosity, attended to hear him, went away converts. In addition to his distinguished talents he possesses a loving, amiable, and courteous disposition, which has gained him the esteem and affection of the whole town, and contributed to advance his religious progress. He is still young, of a strong constitution, and zealous; but his exertions are such that we have reason to apprehend he will soon be exhausted. Unfortunate it is, that he cannot put a restraint on himself, and that the prospect of the good he may effect, will not permit him to listen to the daily representations of his friends.

Boston is not the only place where he spends his zeal; he displays the same in a manner no less consoling though less brilliant in his mission at Newcastle, along the river of Damascotti, and in the province of Maine; a mission which he himself has established, and which offers most interesting particulars.

Two Irish catholics, possessed of a very small fortune had settled in those parts. Being strongly attached to their religion, they invited the ecclesiastics of Boston to visit them, and by their presence to administer spiritual consolation. Mr. Cheverai, as most inured to fatigue, paid them an annual visit, and from thence, as from a central point, he would call on some families, formerly catholic, scattered about the province of Maine, but who, for want of ecclesiastics to instruct them, had nearly lost sight of their religion. Those visits proved serviceable, not only to the catholics, but to those protestants who attended his private instructions and public preaching, so that, by degrees, he succeeded in forming a congregation of above two hundred catholics, most part of which are converts from all sects, even quakers, who were for a long time the most tenacious in their opposition. These catholics are dispersed at a distance of 4, 5, 10, 15, and even 20 miles from the little chapel at Newcastle. However, their devotion is such that they seldom fail, let the weather be ever so bad, repairing thither on a Sunday: I have not yet had the pleasure of seeing that congregation, but from what I have been told, the sight is equally pleasing and edifying. The bishop of Baltimore who had visited them, is in raptures whenever he speaks of them.

The chapel which they now occupy, and has been neatly decorated by one of those good catholics who had invited Mr. Cheverai, was originally a large store room. Providence, which seems to have directed them towards that spot there to introduce the catholic religion, has blessed their undertakings. They have made a large fortune, in twelve years time; and finding the chapel too small for the admission of the protestants, have proposed to build, at their own cost, a magnificent church with a parsonage house, and to

have an extensive ground adjoining. I am of opinion that within a twelvemonth the building of the church will be completed, and then, according to all appearances, the progress of religion will acquire fresh vigour. It would have been much more rapid, undoubtedly, had Mr. Cheverai been able to reside constantly among them; but he cannot possibly continue there more than four or five months in the course of the year; being wanted at Boston the rest of the time. He is so generally beloved and esteemed, that none of the congregations would consent to cede him to another for the whole time; and there is no idea of replacing him by another ecclesiastic. Besides, he experiences such enjoyments amidst each of them, that he himself could not easily determine to leave either, unless it appeared to be the will of God, through the commands of his superiors. Nor does he mind the fatigues to which those two congregations successively subject him. If I am not prevented, I intend accompanying him to the place of his next mission.

The third is at Passamaquoddi, on the frontiers of the United States and Nova-Scotia. This is intended for the Indians of that tribe, who are about two hundred in number, and for some catholic families in the neighbourhood. That tribe had been formerly converted by the Jesuits. Ever since the dissolution of that society, they had only seen missionaries at intervals; and had repeatedly been several years, without a visit from any clergyman whatever. Notwithstanding this disadvantageous condition, they continued attached to their religion; the duties of which they attended, when their private business allowed them. No sooner were they informed of ecclesiastics being at Boston, than they sent a deputation to them with a particular invitation. Mr. Cheverai went repeatedly, and spent several months with them. Great was his admiration of their ardent faith and piety, and the impressive zeal with which most of them discharged their religious duty; till at last sensible how desirable it was that an ecclesiastic should settle among them, he invited thither his friend Mr. Romagné from London: who has ever since lived with those Indians, he has learnt their language, and is as happy as ever. An annual sum of nearly 900 francs has been obtained from the legislature of Massachusets for his maintenance: 1500 francs have been likewise obtained for the building of a wooden church, which is just finished, and of a farm-house as a parsonage. In short, the protestant legislature has done what could hardly have been expected from a legislature of catholics, to provide for a missionary, and secure to the Indians the means of attending their religious worship.

It is expected that this church will contribute to prevent the Indians from wandering to different parts of the country, that they will take a liking to the place, and become civilized. The Abbé Romagné intends to try to teach the women spinning, weaving, &c. &c. and to persuade the men to cultivate the lands. Several have already made inclosures, and begun to sow maize. They generally spend part of the year in hunting and fishing; and this wandering life is to many of them an opportunity of committing serious offences. It is much to be lamented that they live so near the Americans, whose intercourse introduces disorderly propensities among the Indians, and chiefly drunkenness, to which all the evil they commit may be attributed: the former missionaries had exerted their utmost endeavours in cautioning them against that bad habit, and had succeeded so far as to make them hold it in such abhorrence, that a great many of those Indians have, for a number of years, resisted their natural immoderate passion for spirits, and have not even tasted a drop. Mr. Romagné is convinced that if he could keep them in the woods, far from the commerce of the whites, he should have the satisfaction of seeing them nearly as sober and temperate as they were formerly; but there is no possibility of removing them from their present habitations. Mr. Romagné is settled at Passamaquoddi, but every year he visits the Indians of Penobscott, who live in an island of the river of the same name, at 200 miles distance from his own residence. Penobscott was formerly a very considerable tribe; and religion was there as flourishing as at Passamaquoddi; but, living among the whites, these Indians follow their vicious practices, and are more corrupt in their morals than the other tribe. However, since they have a missionary constantly with them, they begin to amend; and Mr. Romagné sent word a few days ago, on his return from a visit to them, that he had great reason to be more satisfied with their conduct, and had even admitted upwards of eighty of them to the sacrament. He has introduced vaccination among these Indians, and has inoculated above 150 last summer with success.

Their mode of living is still the same, in the main, as that described in some of the "Edifying Letters," relative to the Indian tribes, not far distant from the part of the country which they occupy. It has only undergone some few unavoidable modifications owing to their more intimate intercourse with the whites of whom they are become nearer neighbours.

Singing has been a means of teaching those Indians the *prime:* [the first morning canonical prayer.] Though they had been so long without a priest among them, yet they had retained the

custom of singing the primes, either at home or in public. Mr. Cheverai was very much surprised when he heard them singing all their prayers, and a great number of pious songs in the Indian language, in the same style as in the European churches, and with a precision scarcely to be found among the most expert choristers. The music of one of the most beautiful hymns that is sung in Boston, was introduced by these Indians, from whom Mr. Cheverai learned it.

The religious principles which are still discovered in these Indians, notwithstanding they have been left entirely to themselves for so long a continuance, must excite admiration at the spiritual labours of the Jesuits who first instructed them. Had not that society been suppressed, the missionaries of Maryland would have proceeded to every point of that continent; and if it were to be re-established and so situated as to send over missionaries of the same disposition as the former, there is no doubt but the Catholic religion would be soon propagated in that country. The unconcernedness which is the result of the different sectaries being at variance, tends to annihilate the protestant persuasion in those climes; and indeed it has lost its original vigour; the body subsists, but that zeal which animated it has vanished. The protestants of every denomination being brought to this extremity are nearly become deists. But if a number of men of abilities, of exemplary life, and of apostolic devotion, were sent among them, they would prevent their fall into the abyss of infidelity, and found them on the rock of true religion. There are several missionaries of that description in the country, but their number is very small in comparison to what is requisite: and indeed this number can only be supplied by a society; for it is not in the power of private secular individuals alone to surmount every obstacle. For want of missionaries, the people disgusted with protestantism, sink lower and lower every day into irreligion, the progress of which is extremely rapid, with that likewise of democracy, her faithful companion; the union of those forms a jacobinism which threatens the social order of the country.

Since I have had the honour of writing to you for the first time, this jacobinism has infected the inferior classes, and the return to better principles of those who were able to reflect, and well disposed, has been unable to stem the torrent. What I then mentioned still exists, and even with greater force, although I can perceive that circumstances are more favourable to the Catholic religion. The missions of which I have just spoken were not so well known by me; they did not extend so far as they do now; besides, that part of the country where I lived, and with which I was the best acquainted, was the most violent against the Catholics.

I have it not in my power to enter into any particulars relative to the state of the South and West: all that I know is the Catholic religion gains ground there, and that its progress exceeds in proportion that of the sects, yet not in that degree as might be wished. If the Abbé Gallitzin goes to Munster, he will be better qualified than myself to describe the real state of religion in those parts: he is an inhabitant of the West, where he lives like an apostle, and the Almighty has crowned his labours with success, as I have been informed by the bishop of Baltimore.

Some nuns have tried to form a religious establishment in different parts, but they have had great difficulties to encounter, and were forced to seek for a more peaceable retreat: they went towards the South, but I have not heard of them this long time.

I have no doubt, Sir, but you know of the arrival of the monks of La Trappe, in this country last year. They had first thought of settling in Pensylvania; but, I believe, that not being successful in accommodating themselves, they are going to try whether they can settle in Kentucky: I hope they may continue in that country; that celestial blessings will pour around them, and that their pious example will contribute to public edification and to the propagation of faith.

The institution of a college at Baltimore by the abbé Dubourg, it appears to us will lead to farther success.—This ecclesiastic, of eminent talents, chiefly distinguished for his education of youth, who was at the head of a very interesting establishment in Paris, had instituted, some years back, a college at Baltimore for the reception of Spanish and French catholics; but the Spanish government having prohibited youth from being sent to the United States, to be educated, that college was given up. It is no more than eight months since Mr. Dubourg has opened another, on a more extensive scale, and into which, accordingly, the children of the protestants are admitted. The success of his first college was soon known by the public, and served to recommend the new establishment. The number of the young candidates, was so considerable, that he built another wing to his house, which was immediately filled up; so that now he is going to erect a third building; and it is said, that if he had room sufficient for three hundred pupils, he could have them instantly. His colleagues are ecclesiastics formerly belonging to the seminary of St. Sulpice, in Paris, of which he himself was a member.

All who know the establishment confess that there is nothing in America to be compared to it. The reputation which it daily

acquires among the protestants, is something extraordinary. It is only a few days since, that a gentleman from Baltimore, at a grand public dinner, which took place at Boston, declared, in the presence of above two hundred people, that one of the most fortunate events for the country, was the institution of that college, and that the United States ought to be proud of the establishment. The observation was unanimously approved of; Mr. Cheverai was present and heard the satifactory report.

Notwithstanding youths of every persuasion be admitted, the catholic religion alone is exercised in the college; the pupils are allowed to go on Sundays to their respective meetings, but on every other day they hear prayers read with the catholics.

The Bishop of Baltimore told us last year, that he had applied to Rome, in order that his immense diocese, which includes the whole United States, should be divided. I have just been told that he has received necessary authority for that purpose, that his see of Baltimore is erected into an Archbishoprick; that he is at liberty to appoint as many bishops as he pleases; has the nomination of them, and may determine their residence. By this means the catholic church in America will acquire an importance, which, on the whole, must prove of great advantage, and give satisfaction to the catholics, and inspire them with great confidence. I know that Mr. Malignon is designed as one of the new bishops, but I question whether he will be prevailed upon to accept of that dignity: besides other qualities which distinguish apostolical characters, he is equally afraid, with them, of being intrusted with episcopal responsibility.

I sent you comparative returns, with the aid of which you might form an idea of the amazing improvement of the population, industry, commerce, and wealth, of the country. I have mislaid the notes I had occasionally taken down to furnish you with particular details on that subject, which prevents my acquainting you with them at present. The prosperity of this country is beyond conception; and were it not coupled with the sad and melancholy symptoms, which the political and anti-religious principles exhibit, the spectacle would be no less delightful than it is astonishing. We see continually pouring upon us a great number of emigrants from Ireland, Scotland, Holland, Germany, and for some years past from Switzerland. Some Irish excepted, very few settle in the Northern States. Those of New York, Pensylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, are the refuse of most of those emigrants: the Germans generally resort to Pensylvania, and a small number to the State of New York. A great par of Pensylvania is inhabited by Germans only. There they retain their own language and manners, and are the most industrious; but most of them, and indeed nearly all the other emigrants, espouse the democratic party. The spirit of that party has sometimes produced among the Germans an influence injurious to religion, by fomenting dreadful schisms over extensive and populous parishes.

I recollect that you enquired into the physical constitution of the Americans. In the north they are strong, vigorous, tall, inured to fatigue, and notwithstanding their clumsy aukward appearance, they are very active, and amazingly dextrous when employed in ordinary labours. In the parts where a number of emigrants are settled in a body, the men of European extraction are easily known: but, where they are not so numerous, they intermix, and are no longer to be distinguished.

As I have never visited south of New York, I have not been able to make observations applicable to the physical disposition of the inhabitants of the States, but I know that their energy decreases in proportion to the latitude, and in consequence of the European nations from which the inhabitants originally sprang.

You have also enquired about the horses. They are very numerous in this country, there is hardly a family but keeps at least one, and all people in good circumstances drive their gig. When they have more than one mile to go, they do not know what it is to walk. The horses of the country, that is, the breed from those that were formerly imported, are strong, indefatigable, and require but little care. They are pretty quick, for a very ordinary horse will draw a gig at the rate of 5 or 6 miles an hour, and 30 or 40 a day for several days together; whereas the good horses will travel at the rate of 8 or 9 miles an hour; these by the bye, are never used for agricultural pursuits, nor for the drawing of heavy loads: they use oxen in New England upon those occasions. In Pensylvania and Virginia they have horses of the Flemish breed which are very large and powerful. Of late years they have imported from Europe, and especially from England, some very fine stallions, so that the number of elegant horses, nay, of race-horses, daily increases. The Americans grow more and more fond of copying the English; but more particularly so in the States of New York and in the south, than in New England; where the races far from being in vogue are prohibited in some parts.

Those fine horses are very dear, and require a great deal of care. The horses that are reared in this country, as also all other animals, such as bulls, oxen, cows, dogs, &c. &c. are wonderfully tame and tractable

This particular character surprises all Europeans upon their arrival. Little children or women take care of and manage them, without accidents. I am inclined to think this proceeds from the climate, and the gentle manner in which they are treated.

The memoirs that I had written, relative to the Indians, and which had served me as matter for my preceding letters which have been lost, I have likewise mislaid; neither do I recollect their contents. All that I can observe is, that in general either death or migration has thinned their number. They retire in proportion as the whites advance, and are now nearly all gone as far as the frontiers; there only remains a large tribe in the interior of the western lands. Immoderate drinking, distress, and the mixture of the vices of the whites with those of the Indians, hasten the dissolution and ruin of the other tribes that are surrounded by the whites. Those who are seen wandering over the States on the borders of the Atlantic retain nothing of the Indian, except features and complexion, but in every other respect they resemble the most corrupt and degraded among the whites; they are true objects of compassion. Part of the remainder of the Six Nations is gone to upper Canada; the rest live in the northern parts of the State of New York; such as are catholics widely differ from their ancestors, and no longer inspire the same interest. I have always wished to see some of those populous tribes, and if I am destined to reside some years longer in America, I intend visiting those which are in the vicinity of Niagara, that I may view at the same time that great curiosity of the new world."

Fas est et ab hoste doceri!

That the complaints of the writer of the foregoing letter in respect to the dreadful effects of strong liquors among the Indians, are but too well founded, we are extremely grieved to be forced to admit. A more faithful and affecting picture of consequent distresses, cannot perhaps be delineated, than that presented by an Indian speaker, at a late conference with some Protestant Missionaries.—The simple pathos of nature, speaks more powerfully to the heart, than the most laboured composition of the orator: and the plain good sense expressed in nervous terms which distinguish the style of our "red brethren" has often been the subject of our admiration, and is entitled to our unequivocal applause.

"Brothers and Friends,—Since the introduction among us of what you call spirituous liquors, and what we think may be justly called poison, our numbers are greatly diminished. It has destroyed a great part of your red brethren.

"This liquor which they introduce into our country, is more to be feared than the gun and the tomahawk.

"Brothers,—When our young men have been out hunting, and are returned home loaded with skins and furs; on their way, if it happens that they come where some of this whiskey is deposited, the white man who sells it, tells them to take a little drink. Some of them will say, 'No, I do not want it.'—They go on till they come to another house, where they find more of the same drink. It is there offered again; they refuse, and again the third time; but, finally, the fourth or fifth time, one accepts of it, and takes a drink; and getting one, he wants another; and then a third and fourth, till his senses have left him. After his reason comes back again to him, when he gets up and finds where he is, he asks for his peltry; the answer is, "You have drank them."—"Where is my gun?" 'It is gone.'—"Where is my blanket?" 'It is gone.'—"Where is my shirt?" 'You have sold it for whiskey!' Now, brothers, figure to yourselves what condition this man must be in. He has a family at home; a wife and children, who stand in need of the profits of his hunting. What must be their wants when he himself is even without a shirt!"

PROPOSITA LITERARIA.

CORRECTION OF THE ENGLISH VERSION OF JOHN XIX. 5.—PROPOSED BY W. G.

As I conceive it to be an almost universal opinion with regard to translations of Scripture, that where the sense is compleat without additions or curtailments, the original should be retained, I beg leave to ask, why the word *Pilate* has been introduced in the following text,—John xix. 5. "Then came Jesus forth wearing the crown of thorns, and the purple robe, And (Pilate) saith unto them, "behold the man." The original, literally translated, is *and saith to them.*—I do think that reading it thus is preferable to the mode adopted. When we consider that Christ came to be a willing sacrifice for sin, and that He, without exception, evidenced such willingness—nay, took great pains to convince his followers that he laid down his life spontaneously; and that no man took it from him;—If, therefore, he shewed such willingness to suffer death, why should he be robbed in this instance of the merit which is so conspicuous in a voluntary exhibition of himself, in his humiliation. I see more beauty than I can express, in putting the words "Behold the man" into the mouth of the Redeemer: at least there can be no absurdity in it, as it stands in the original, why therefore change it? In submitting this remark, I aim not at criticism, but wish for information on the subject of this addition to the original.

CORRECTION OF A PASSAGE IN TACITUS.

PROPOSED BY F. D. K.

The present situation of Europe has given an additional value to the immortal works of Tacitus. Even the thoughtless Frenchman finds a gloomy consolation, in the faithful picture of the military despotism, under which he groans; and secure in his closet mocks the tyrant in his historical likeness.

In the several editions and translations of this author we meet with few or no emendations; although in my humble opinion the mutilated state of the MSS. admits of many. One I cannot resist submitting to you, on account of its extreme simplicity, and the wonderful improvement it produces in the sense. It is in the Annals, lib. iv. cap. 53. The usual reading is, "At Agrippina pervicax iræ, et morbo corporis implicata, cum viseret eâm Cæsar, profusis diu ac per silentium lacrimis, mox invidiam et preces orditur. Subveniret solitundii, daret maritum, habilem adhuc juventam sibi, *neque aliud probis quam ex matrimonio solatium: esse in civitate Germanici conjugem ac liberos ejus recipere dignarcter.*" Such is the reading of Beroald, and of the ancient MSS.; that of Florence has *dignarentur*. This passage has strangely puzzled all commentators: most of them have attempted to make some sense of it, by adding or changing some words. Lipsius alone fairly gives it up.

With some assistance the Florentine MS. is usually thus translated: "That a virtuous woman could have no comfort but in matrimony; that many would be found in the city who would deign to receive in their house the wife and the children of Germanicus." The learned Brothier, the last commentator on Tacitus, had adopted that meaning, boldly adding the word *qui*. Gevartius protested, and with great reason, against this tame sentence, as unworthy the proud heart of Agrippina, and her exalted situation; nor do I think that it coincides with the *invidiam et preces*, which Tacitus announces in the speech of Agrippina.

I have ventured to think, that by the simple transposition of a colon, the sentence would be perfectly clear, and truly *Cornelian*. I propose to read thus: *Neque aliud probis quam ex matrimonio solatium esse: in civitate Germanici conjugem ac liberos ejus recipere dignaretur.* Importing, "that a virtuous woman could have no comfort but in matrimony: that he would deign to allow the wife and the children of Germanicus to enjoy the common rights of all citizens." (On those rights *vide Lex Poppæa.*) This sense appears to me to coincide perfectly with the *invidiam et preces orditur*. The expression *recipere in civitate* is frequently used in the sense I have given it: and the *recivere dignarctur* is entirely in the style of Tacitus; who says in the Ann. lib. vi. cap. 23, *consultus que Cæsar an sepelirit sineret, non erubuit permittere.*

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CORRECTIONS IN SHAKESPEARE'S TEXT.

PROPOSED BY T. C.

The introductory lines to the Cymbeline of our immortal poet Shakespeare, have been a subject of consideration and perplexity among his editors; none of whom has hitherto reduced it to common sense and expression. Dr. Johnson has a laboured note on this passage, in which he has done his utmost to elicit a meaning. Messrs. Steevens, Tyrwhit, &c. contributed their assistance also, but with what success may safely be left to the reader's decision. I think that two words have caused all this confusion by an accidental change of place with each other. The passage usually is printed thus:

You do not meet a man, but frowns; our *bloods*
No more obey the heavens, than our *courtiers*,
Still seem as does the King's.

It is agreed on all hands, that the lines are mutilated; to restore them is the difficulty. I propose to read them thus;

You do not meet a man but frowns; our
courtiers
(Who) no more obey the heavens than our
bloods,
Still seem as does the King.

The speaker means to say that "the king being touched at very heart" the courtiers "wear their faces to the bent of the king's looks," as he appears sad through vexation, so do they through imitation; and although they will not conform to the directions of heaven, yet they are induced by policy to conform to the king's looks, though "glad at heart of the thing they scowl at." That the phrase *blood* or *bloods*, means the disobedient principle in man, needs no proof; so one says "Marriage binds, and *blood* breaks"—the marriage bond. So we read of the hot condition of blood: and when Shilock laments his daughter Jessica's elopement, he speaks of his "flesh and *blood rebelling*," which is equivocally retorted on him, "out upon thee, old carrion! *rebels* it at these years?"

Another correction of the same writer occurs to me as requisite in the Merry Wives of Windsor, where Slender is describing his circumstances to Ann Page, "I keep but three men and a boy yet, till my mother be dead; but what though; yet I live like a poor gentleman born." Now, I cannot think that however the poet may design to represent Slender as simple-witted, he would make him talk nonsense, and break the rules of grammar. I would therefore read, "but what, though I live poor, yet *(I am)* a gentleman born." The idea of descent by birth, as a commen-

dation, is perfectly in character for Master Slender, who having no super-abundance of gentleman-like qualities to testify his dignity, endeavours to derive a reflected lustre from the accidental circumstance of his being a gentleman by rank: no uncommon refuge of weak minds. To this agrees the appellation of "your worship" bestowed on him by Ann Page; and his after proposal to maintain his wife "like a gentlewoman, under the degree "of a squire."

COLLEGE OF FORT WILLIAM.

Distribution of Prizes and Honorary Rewards, at the 6th annual Examination, held Jan. 1806. [*See page* 161.]

HINDOOSTANEE.—*First Class.* 1 Christian, 1500 rupees and medal. 2 Dorin, 1000 and medal. 3 Newnham, medal. 4 Bird. —*Second Class.* 5 Smyth. 6 Clark. 7 Wright. 8 Siddons. 9 Parry. 10 Monckton. 11 Ricketts. 12 Revelev. 13 Williams. 14 Romney. 15 Gordon, W. B. 16 Pakenham. 17 Walpole. 18 Maxwell. 19 Ewer. 20 Loch. 21 Chapman. 22 Gardiner.—*Third Class.* 23 Ellis. 24 Brown. 25 Colvin. 26 Glyn. 27 Tytler. 28 Mason. 29 Dick. 30 Roberdeau. 31 Barwell. 32 Murray. 33 Dawes. 34 Eyre. 35 Warde, G. 36 Thomas. 37 Oakley. 38 Shum. 39 Smith. 40 Mackenzie. 41 Inglis. 42 Ellick. 43 Cuthbert.

ARABIC. Ewer, 1500 rupees and medal.

MAHRATTA. Chapman, medal.

LAWS AND REGULATIONS. 1 Bird, 1000 rupees and medal. 2 Ewer. 3 Dorin. 4 Smyth. 5 Newnham. 6 W. B. Gordon.

PERSIAN WRITING. 1 Christian, 1000 rupees and medal. 2 Gordon, W. B. 500 and medal. 3 Romney, medal.

NAGREE WRITING. 1 Bird, 500 rupees and medal. 2 Newnham, medal.

BENGALEE WRITING. 1 Romney, 500 rupees and medal. 2 Newnham, medal.

PERSIAN.—*First Class.* 1 Dorin, 1500 rupees and medal. 2 Christian, 1000 and medal. 3 Ewer, medal.—*Second Class.* 4 Newnham. 5 Bird. 6 Gordon, F. D. 7 Smyth. 8 Clark. 9 Romney. 10 Ricketts. 11 Wright.—*Third Class.* 12 Monckton. 13 Loch. 14 Parry. 15 Gordon, W. B. 16 Brown. 17 Ewing. 18 Chapman. 19 Ellis. 20 Glyn. 21 Walpole. 22 Roberdeau. 23 Maxwell. 24 Revely. 25 Pakenham.

BENGALEE.—*First Class.* 1 Christian, 1000 rupees and medal. 2 Parry. 500 and medal. 3 Newnham, medal.—*Second Class.* 4 Williams. 5 Pakenham. 6 Siddons. 7 Chapman. 8 Ricketts. 9 Romney. 10 Money.—Absent from the examination, Messrs. Lowther, Lindsay, Halhead, and W. C. Ward.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.—*Essay of First Term of* 1805. *Subject.* "On the establishment of the British empire in India." 1 W. W. Bird, 1000 rupees and medal. 2 Richard Walpole, medal.

Essay of Second Term of 1805. *Subject.* —"On the ultimate improvement of India in the course of ages, under the influence of British dominion, in learning and science; in manners, morals, and religion." Mr. William Dorin, 1000 rupees and medal.

Essay of Fourth Term of 1805. *On the Regulations. Subject.*—"On the courts of civil justice established in the provinces subject to the government of Fort William." Henry Newnham, 1000 rupees and medal. 2 W. B. Gordon, medal.

EXAMINATION IN THE GREEK AND LATIN CLASSICS. W. Dorin, hon. reward of books.

Published by order of the council of the College,—W. HUNTER, *Secretary.*

STUDENTS LEAVING COLLEGE, *and entering on Public Service in March* 1806, *classed in the Order of relative Proficiency.—First Class.* 1 H. G. Christian, 1st in Hindoostanee, 1st in Bengalee, 2d in Persian, 1st in Persian writing. 2 W. Dorin, 1st in Persian, 2d in Hindoostanee, 3d in the laws and regulations, prizes in English composition, and in the Greek and Latin classics. 3 W. Ewer, proficient in Arabic, third in Persian, and 19th in Hindoostanee, 2d in the laws and regulations, prize in English composition. 4 H. Newnham, 3d in Hindoostanee, 3d in Bengalee, 4th in Persian, 2d in Nagree writing, 2d in Bengalee writing, prize in English composition, and for his essay on the laws and regulations. 5 E. Parry, 2d in Bengalee, 9th in Hindoostanee, and 14th in Persian. 6 W. W. Bird, 4th in Hindoostanee, 5th in Persian, 1st in the laws and regulations, 1st in Nagree writing, prize in English composition.—*Second Class.* 7 M. Ricketts, 10th in Persian, 11th in Hindoostanee, and 8th in Bengalee. 8 G. J. Siddons, 8th in Hindoostanee, 6th in Bengalee, prize in English composition. 9 H. A. Williams, 4th in Bengalee, 13th in Hindoostanee. 10 T. Pakenham, 5th in Bengalee, 16th in Hindoostanee, and 25th in Persian. 11 C. Chapman, proficient in Mahratta language, 7th in Bengalee, 18th in Persian, and 21st in Hindoostanee. 12 F. D. Gordon, 6th in Persian. 13 P. Monckton, 10th in Hindoostanee, 12th in Persian. 14 W. B. Gordon, 15th in Hindoostanee, and 15th in Persian, 2d in Persian writing, prize in English compositions and for his essay on the regulations. 15 A. Revely, 12th in Hindoostanee, and 24th in Persian. 16 R. Walpole, 7th in Hindoostanee, and 21st in Persian, prize in English composition. 17 W. Loch, 13th in Persian, and 20th in Hindoostanee.

18 C. R. Lindsay, in 2d class Persian at a former examination. 19 W. Lowther, in 2d class Hindoostanee at a former examination.

Degrees of Honour were conferred this Day (3d March, 1806), on the following Students: H. G. Christian, Hindoostanee, Persian and Bengalee. W. Dorin, Persian and Hindoostanee. W. Ewer, Persian. H. Newnham, Bengalee. E. Parry, Bengalee.

Medals of Merit awarded at the Quarterly Examinations, were presented to the following Students:—Laws and Regulations. W. Wilberforce Bird, Walter Ewer.

Persian and Hindoostanee Languages. Wm. Dorin, N. J. Halhed, W. Fairlie Clark, G. J. Romney, Robt. Brown, and Henry Ellis.

Register of Degrees of Honour. 1801 William Pearson Elliott. 1802 Chas. Lloyd, Jonathan Henry Lovett. 1803 Wm. Butterworth Bayley, Wm. Chaplin, Richard Thos. Goodwin, Terrick Hamilton, Richard Jenkins, Wm. Byam Martin, Edwd. Wood. 1804 Clotworthy Gowan, Hen. Geo. Keene, Wm. Oliver, Thos. Perry, John Romer, Geo. Swinton, John Walker, John Wauchope. 1805 Thos. Chisholme Scott, Mont. Henry Turnbull, Jos. Littledale. Jas. Majoribanks. 1806 Hugh Geo. Christian, Wm. Dorin, Walter Ewer, Hen. Newnham, Edw. Parry.

The interest which we feel in whatever concerns our Indian Empire, has induced us to take particular pains to procure from thence whatever is important or instructive. We trust to be able in consequence, to present from time to time, such information as cannot fail of being acceptable to the public at large, as well as to those who have friends established in that country.

DESCRIPTION OF AN IMPROVED DOOR-LATCH. Invented by Mr. John Antis, of Fulneck, near Leeds. From vol. xxiii. p. 365 of the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. The Silver Medal was voted to Mr. Antis for this Invention.

I do not doubt but that the society are persuaded of the necessity of having a door-latch superior to, and not so liable to be out of order as those hitherto in use, in the door-locks of dining-rooms, &c. Some time ago I made an attempt to contrive such a one, which I fixed into a small box by itself; I have now tried it for some years in my own house, during which I never found occasion to clean or to oil it. I at that time thought there would be a difficulty to introduce it into a mortise lock, in such a manner as to place the nobs and the key-hole symmetrically. That difficulty I have now overcome.

My object has been to contrive a simple latch, as much as possible without friction, not more expensive than those hitherto in use, and capable of moving smoothly and easily without the necessity of cleaning and oiling, as long as the metal will last of which it is made. How far I have succeeded, I leave to the decision of the society.

a, shews the hole for the handle, which moves the follower and latch. *b*, the follower which draws back the latch on turning the handle either way. *c*, the latch. *d*, the longitudinal spring, which throws out the catch of the latch when the hand is withdrawn. *e*, the small bolt, to secure the door internally. *f*, the key-hole, the bolt of the lock of which is not shewn, being placed above the key-hole.

EARL STANHOPE'S MUSICAL TEMPERAMENT.

Lord Stanhope has favoured us with a copy of his small work intituled: "Principles of "the Science of tuning Instruments with "fixed Tones." His Lordship begins with an explanation of the theory of TEMPERAMENT and of the several systems hitherto advanced by mathematicians and adopted by musicians. In order to remedy the imperfection of those instruments with fixed tones which have no smaller interval than a semitone, it is necessary to alter the concords, and it is this alteration that is called temperament. Rameau had said that were the octave to be once altered, there would be no more fixed principles in harmony or in melody. He had laid it down as a rule that the more an interval was perfect, the more its alteration displeased the ear; for that reason, his opinion was that the third being an interval less perfect than the quint, it was necessary to make the quint more perfect than the third, and to make the octave quite perfect, as the least deviation in that interval was offensive to the ear. He had therefore proposed an equal temperament, that is equal deviation in the quints, by rendering them equally flat. Formerly the four first quints from the C were lessened, and then the others were sharpened equally, which was called the *unequal temperament*.

The *equal temperament* Lord Stanhope very much disapproves. "According to that "erroneous system," says his Lordship, "there is not a single *perfect* third, nor a "single *perfect* fourth, nor a single *perfect* "quint in the whole instrument." He thinks that an equal deviation in the concords destroys that *difference of character*, which ought to exist, in a well tuned instrument, between the different keys, and to a pleasing and orderly variety substitutes only a dull monotony. He reproves also the method of those who throw the whole altera-

tion on one or two keys only, and blames still more those who alter the octave. He has invented a *new temperament*, to which he has given his name, and which makes the quints and fourths nearly perfect, and affects only the thirds. Two of those are even quite perfect, they are C. E. and G. B. six of the remaining ten thirds are sharper than perfect, and each of them is of the exact value of what he calls a *bi-equal third*. The remaining four thirds are sharper likewise than perfect, but less so than the preceding six; and each of them is, in respect to sharpness, *intermediate* between the other two descriptions. Of these four last, two are nearer to a bi-equal third than to a perfect one.

This new mode, excellent for transposition and for modulation, has been tried with success in presence of about seventy of the first professional persons of both sexes, and of the ablest connoisseurs in England, who have given it their decided approbation.

Lord Stanhope has also contrived a new tuning instrument, which consists of thirteen slips of plate glass, each of which is exactly six inches long by two inches in breadth. They are tuned, by varying the thickness, one to C, another to D., &c. The thickness of the slip which yields the sound of the middle C. is about 9-100ths of an inch, and the thickness of the slip which yields the sound of the first treble C. is about 18-100ths. These two C's are the two extremes. Each slip yields a sound perfectly pure. By means of this simple apparatus, pitched to the new *Stanhope temperament*, any person, with some care and a moderate ear, can tune an instrument perfectly, and better than those who employ the modes hitherto known.

We cannot but applaud all exertions the object of which is to improve that part of the science of Music on which the best effects of harmony depend; and our praises are specially due to those enlightened and steady amateurs, who, like Lord Stanhope, are not deterred in their labours by the difficulties which that science offers, and the expense which new experiments are necessarily attended with. As to his new system of deviation in the consonances, we cannot rightly estimate its merit unless the practical effect of it be justified by experience; but as Lord Stanhope's mode affects only the interval which is naturally the less perfect, we should think, in theory, that his temperament must be at least as good as any other, since when the best part of the quints and fourths are perfect, the ear supplies whatever imperfection there may be in the other intervals. From our own experience, we can confirm what D'Alembert says; "Listen to a voice accompanied by different instruments; although "the temperament of the voice and that of "each of those instruments differs severally, "yet you will not be affected by the kind of "clash that ought to result from it, because "the ear supposes those intervals perfect of "which it does not detect the deviation."

The copy under our inspection does very great honour to the press which produced it; it is the iron printing press of the second construction invented by Earl Stanhope. In our opinion this is one of the most uniformly excellent specimens of printing that we have ever seen.

ON THE STATE OF CIVILISATION OF THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE, IN RELATION TO RELIGION AND RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION. From Letters written in March and April, 1806, by a well informed German, who has long resided in Russia.

The multitude among the Russians is, in regard to mental culture, in the lowest degree of degradation; the labourer, the peasant, the mechanic, the soldier, can neither read nor write. It would be too favourable if we calculated that, one in a thousand of these classes could read. Catharine II. indeed, founded schools for the people in the several metropolitan cities, where reading and writing are taught *gratis*: but very few participated in these advantages, and those only town-people. In Moscow (*Moskwa*, in the Russian orthography) where the population is 400,000, these schools had only 1000 scholars. The scholastic establishments which have been instituted in this reign are not properly calculated for the lower classes; and probably not only this generation, but several succeeding generations will pass away ere the Russian peasant will be in such a situation, that ability to read will become necessary for his children.

The Greek church, however, has provided that her members shall not remain wholly unacquainted with the bible. In the daily church service, which lasts many hours, besides the liturgies, which are read, lectures are delivered on various parts of the old and new testament, especially on the psalms, the gospels, and epistles, so that these three divisions of Holy Writ are read through more than once in a year, and therefore the constant attendants at church are sufficiently, and often astonishingly well acquainted with them.

Nevertheless, the number of these constant attendants at church is but small. The church translation which has been introduced, is in the Sclavonian tongue, but not in the proper dialect of the country. On account of its so frequent use in the church service, this language is understood by most who attend church regularly, but not by all. A translation in the common dialect of the country is much to be desired. But this would not only meet with many difficulties on the part of the translator, in relation to the language itself, but still greater and more essential on the par of the lower classes of the people. The neces-

sary revision of the many orthographical errors in the MSS. used in the 17th century, which were so gross as completely to pervert the meaning, although their use had been appointed by the patriarch Nicon, occasioned as is well known, a schism which issued in the sect of Separatists, called *Raskolniki*, (Schismatics) or, as they call themselves, *Staroviertzy* (old believers) which to the present moment is troublesome to the church, and to the state. To avoid such breaches in future, a law has been passed by which no bible or any part of a bible, and especially, no book used in the church is allowed to be printed, except under the immediate inspection of the highest spiritual tribunal, the holy directing Synod, and at their press, with ecclesiastical letters, in imitation of manuscript.

No Greek bibles are found in Russia, because among a hundred clergymen not one understands Greek. The few Greek testaments which are used in some schools, are procured from Leipzig. In the 16th century a Russian bible was printed in Poland, which however has never been acknowledged as canonical in that country. Copies of this work are now great rarities. In the middle of the 18th century, a superb edition of the bible appeared in folio; of which a copy cost £5. Towards the close of that century, two editions of it appeared at Kiew (one in 3 octavo volumes, price £2, another in 3 folio volumes). These editions might amount to 5 or 6,000 copies. Now, as it is supposed that Rùssia contains 40 millions of inhabitants, it may hence appear how scarce bibles must be among them. Tracts of 100 wersts and more are known where a copy is considered as a rarity. In a peasant's family none is found; and very seldom in that of a nobleman, or merchant. Even among the clergy there is a great want of this sacred book; and no desire is expressed to possess it. Those who cannot read, call themselves, and often with lamentation, blind. Others satisfy themselves with hearing the extracts from the bible read daily, or on feast days. But in general little religious inclination is found in Russia, owing to the total want of religious education. No one, from the noble to the peasant, receives any other religious instruction, than the abovementioned hearing of the liturgy and lectures in the churches. And it would be very difficult to remove this inconvenience.

Ten years ago a very important religious society, undertook the distribution of religious writings, and as they could not interfere with the books used in the church, they attempted to circulate edifying tracts *gratis*. But the society was suppressed, as suspected of political views. Besides these editions of the bible, there are books of psalms, gospels, and epistles, in different editions, of all sizes, and at different, and very low prices; intended chiefly for the use of the church. But those who desire it may provide themselves with bibles, in Petersburgh, Kiew, Moskwa, (although not at all times) at regular fixed prices, from the book warehouses of the synod. It is easiest to procure psalm books; they being the most current.

Since the year 1766 German colonies have been established, in the government of Saratow on the Wolga. There are thirteen protestant parishes, at which are stationed Lutheran and Calvinistic ministers, who have been sent from Germany and Switzerland. From the present high price of the necessaries of life, they have much difficulty to maintain their families. The *Unitas Fratrum* (Moravians) provide bibles printed at Halle, for their establishment in Sarepta. They receive from Germany, yearly, 100 bibles, as many testaments, about 50 psalters, together with 250 or 300 books of other kinds. They have no printing press, and the expense of printing in Moskwa (which is the nearest printing place in the country,) or at Petersburgh, is greater than that of procuring the books in Leipzig. The expense of paper and printing in the former places is very high; for example an edition of the feast psalms of the Moravians published in Moskwa of 5 to 600 copies cost, in Sarepta, 18 to 20 roubles; each copy being 2 octavo leaves. Among the colonies on the Wolga, there are many protestant families who have no bible, but most have a New Testament. The great distance at which the German colonists are from their country, greatly increases the difficulty of procuring books of all kinds. The expenses of carriage, packages, commissions, and tolls, double the original cost at Leipzig on each book. For example: a Bible printed in Halle, which costs in letter press 12 groschen, (18 pence) and as much for binding, costs, at the colonies on the Wolga, about 3 roubles (a rouble about 2s. 6d.) and from 3 to 20 copies according to the binding, which will only be of common leather, coloured, black, or marbled, with red edges: but in black cordovan, with gold edges and lettered, the same bible in large octavo costs 5 roubles: and if bound in Sarepta, still more; therefore they are generally ordered bound. The Moravians in Sarepta have made many attempts to spread the Christian religion among the neighbouring Calmucks; but hitherto without much effect. A translation has likewise been made of several extracts from the bible into the Calmuck language, which has not been printed.

The empire of Russia is so extensive that many things may be true of some parts, which cannot properly be applied to others. Near the great towns, for instance, a love of reading may prevail by very much more than it did twenty years ago, as stated in p. 145, yet letters and books may not have reached the country districts.—Can the Bible Society assist?

REPORTS FROM A COMMITTEE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS RELATING TO THE PRESERVATION OF THE TURNPIKE ROADS AND HIGHWAYS OF THE KINGDOM.

The first Report from the Committee of the Honourable the House of Commons appointed to consider the acts regarding the use of broad wheels, and other matters relating to the preservation of the turnpike roads and highways of this kingdom, contained various observations on the evasions of the law as it then stood which were practised by drivers of stage coaches, to the imminent danger of the lives, limbs, and properties of his Majesty's subjects. As the recommendations of this Committee have been adopted as the basis of an Act of Parliament, and published in all newspapers, &c., we shall not here repeat them.

The second Report demonstrates the great attention paid by the Committee to the subject given them in charge; and as it will most probably lead to considerable alterations in the regulations of the highways and roads, we shall abstract the principal points of the Report itself, with the most important observations in the appendix which accompanies it.

Your committee have already communicated to the house some information regarding the subject which they were instructed to consider, namely, "The regulations as to the "number of outside passengers to be conveyed in stage coaches;"—They now beg leave to report on the two other points recommended to their attention, 1. the system that ought to be adopted for the greater ease of draught in carriages; and, 2. the best means of preserving the turnpike roads and highways of the kingdom.

Observations respecting ease of draught in the conveyance of goods.

Ease of draught must principally depend on two circumstances, 1. the general nature of the carriage made use of; and, 2. the construction of the wheels.

CARRIAGES.—A variety of carriages has been adopted in different countries, from the sledge to the waggon with wheels rolling a surface of 16 inches each, dragged by from 8 to 10, and even 12 horses, and conveying, according to the laws now in force, 8 tons in weight.

Waggons upon the largest scale may certainly be economical to the proprietor, more especially where the wages of men are high, as one trusty person, with an assistant at inferior wages, can manage a number of horses, and convey with the like number of horses and attendants, greater burdens, in proportion to the expence, than can be carried on the public roads in any other manner, (single horse carts, where two or three can be conducted by one person, as is practised in Scotland, alone excepted); and if there were no objections to the use of waggons, on account of the destruction which they occasion to the roads (the reparation of which is attended with so heavy an expence to the public), the use of them would be deserving of encouragement, more especially in a commercial country, where it is important that goods should be conveyed at as moderate an expense as possible. But your committee are led to believe, from the information which they have acquired, that there are scarcely any materials of which our roads are formed, that can bear the pressure of such enormous weights as these waggons are now allowed by law to carry; in addition to which it may be stated, that the form of their wheels or rollers, whose fellies are 16 inches broad, and, as now constructed, of a conical shape, is particularly injurious to the roads.

Machines with two wheels, for conveying goods and other articles, are known under the general name of carts or cars. Of these, single horse carts are in many cases to be preferred; for, though they cannot be adopted with equal advantage where roads are crowded with carriages, and each cart must have a distinct person to attend it, yet where one person can take the charge of two or three single horse carts, which is the case in some parts of the united kingdom, there are no means by which a great quantity of goods can be conveyed at so small an expence.

Carts with two horses abreast have been tried in some countries; but those in use are said to be injurious to the roads, from the enormous weights they convey on narrow wheels. It has also been suggested, that carts with three horses abreast might be advantageous. If they were restricted to wheels whose tire were of a breadth proportionate to the weights they were allowed to carry, and of a cylindrical form, the value of this species of cart would be particularly felt in hilly countries, not only as all the horses could be more easily managed by the driver, so as to oblige them to act with all their force together in dragging the machine up hill, but they would also be equally employed in resisting the weight of the carriage in the descent. This kind of machine, if it answers the expectation formed of it, might be of considerable service in his Majesty's ordnance and military departments.

On the whole, the proper form of carriages for the conveyance of goods, in different circumstances, is a subject which still requires further investigation, and accurate experiments, before the principles thereof can be fully ascertained.

Wheels.—Mr. Cumming, in an essay on that subject, has compared and contrasted the properties of the cylinder and of the cone, and from them has demonstrated the effect which broad wheels, of the conical and of the cylindrical shape, must have on the roads, and on the labour of cattle; that wheels of a conical shape have a constant tendency to impair, and those of a cylindrical shape to improve them. By a most ingenious and well adapted apparatus, he has exhibited to us experiments proving, that there is a resistance from the partial dragging at the periphery of every wheel that is of a conical shape; that it grinds the hardest materials, and leaves the surface of the roads in a state to imbibe water, and adds considerably to the labour of the cattle; and that this resistance, so injurious to the roads, and to the cattle, is increased, by increasing the breadth of the conical wheel.

That the cylindrical wheel, by its progressive dead pressure, consolidates and unites the materials, and leaves the surface smooth, close, and impenetrable to water; and that on a regular, well-formed, clean road, the resistance to the progress of the cylindrical wheel is not increased by increasing the breadth; and that the cylindrical shape is the best possible, it being the only form of the rim that can have an equal velocity of all the parts of its periphery.

And that from every circumstance, the cylyndrical wheel is preferable to the conical, in every state of the roads; and in whatever state they may be, the cylindrical improves, and the conical impairs them.

The Spokes—are the radii of the wheel, and connect the nave with the rim or fellies.

When the spokes stand square, or at right angles, to the axis, they derive no other advantage from that position than the actual strength of the timber of which they are made and are calculated only to bear a perpendicular pressure. When the spokes stand oblique, it gives the wheel a concave appearance on the side that is furthest from the carriage, which is called dishing; and the dishing gives to the wheel in some positions, much additional strength, from the affinity which it has to an arch. It is possible, that the dishing of the wheel was a consequence of the bending of the axis; and it being found that the dishing of wheels was attended with other advantages besides strength, they have been universally preferred.

The narrower the rim of a wheel, the more damage it does the roads; and if cylindrical, the broader it is, consistently with other circumstances, the more it improves them. It seems deserving of consideration, whether the wheels of stage coaches, &c. ought not to be made broader than at present, considering the very great weights which they frequently carry.

If the double weight of the high wheel in drawing up hill be compared with the diminution of the friction on the axis, it will be found on a general average to exceed out of all comparison. From which consideration, it would seem that wheels of a moderate height ought to be preferred, unless where particular circumstances may recommend the higher wheel.

It appears, on the whole, that there remain still so many doubtful points to be ascertained, on the subject of wheels, that it would be desirable to institute a complete set of experiments, for the purpose of fixing the principles on which they ought to be constructed. These experiments should include each of the various particulars above alluded to, and ought to be tried, not in a cursory manner, but for a considerable period of time, in situations best calculated to produce results which can be depended on for their accuracy and universality.

Preservation of the Roads.

It must be obvious that, notwithstanding any improvements which may be made in the general construction or mode of conducting our carriages, or in the form and proportion of their different parts, and more especially of the wheels; however accurately all these may be contrived, according to true mechanical principles; yet if equal care and attention is not paid to the original formation, and, what is perhaps of equal importance, to the constant preservation of the roads, all the prudence of the economical carrier, all the ingenuity and skill of the mechanic, are of little avail.

The man of curiosity who travels for his pleasure; the man of business who traverses the country in pursuit of his affairs; those whose occupation it is to supply one part of the kingdom with the produce of the other, or to convey from the interior to the sea ports the articles of our industry for foreign consumption; and those who are to be supplied by these means with the necessaries or luxuries of life; are equally disappointed in their hopes, and where they look for pleasure, security, economy, and expedition, they have to encounter fatigue and danger, expence and delay. Next to the general influence of the seasons and of the weather (upon which we so much depend for the regular supply of our wants, and for a great portion of our comforts) there is perhaps no circumstance more interesting to men in a civilized state, than the perfection of the means of interior communication; and it is deservedly our boast, that more attention has, upon the whole, been already paid to this important object, in this country, than almost in any other part of the world.

The best modes of forming roads are now indeed pretty well understood, and carried

into execution in most parts of the kingdom: but some regulations appear still to be wanting for their due preservation and management.

The first relates to the improvements which might be made in the general laws regarding highways and turnpikes. Your Committee are decidedly of opinion, that these laws require to be re-considered; and perhaps it would be most advisable, though it would be an arduous task, to repeal the former laws, and to form the whole into one regular digest, which, from the experience of so many years since the laws were first enacted, may be considerably amended and improved.

The idea of conveying goods and carriages on railways is likely to prevail, the more the subject is considered. In many cases railways are certainly preferable even to canals; and wherever they can be adopted, they are unquestionably better calculated than the common roads, for the conveyance of goods, more especially those of a heavy nature. An idea has occurred, of forming what may be called stone railways.

The direction and the forming of roads are also points which merit the attention of Parliament. As to the first particular, it is well known that the roads in former times were not conducted in the manner the best calculated for the travelling of carriages heavily laden. Their course was frequently carried up steep ascents, to gain the open country and avoid the vallies, because the roads through the latter could not easily be made passable in the wet seasons of the year, without a labour and expence which it was perhaps then thought unnecessary to incur, when most even of the heavy articles of trade were carried on the backs of horses. Your Committee are of opinion, that, by examining the lines of the present roads, much improvement might be effected. Any such alterations must necessarily occasion expence, and may be liable to some objections; at the same time it is well worth the trial, and the first attempt might be made on the great line of road between London and Edinburgh, by which the capitals of the two kingdoms would be more closely connected; and if the advantages were found to be considerable, the same plan might afterwards be extended to other lines.

The points they have alluded to in the report are of such infinite consequence to the convenience, the comfort, the commercial prosperity, and the personal security of their fellow subjects, that they will feel peculiar satisfaction, if any suggestions, which it has been in their power to collect, shall at all contribute to such important purposes.

The present laws respecting the turnpikes are the 13 Geo. 3. ch. 84; 14 Geo. 3. ch. 14, 34, 57, 84; 16 Geo. 3. ch. 39, 44; 17 Geo. 3. ch. 16; 18. Geo. 3. ch. 28, 58; 21 Geo. 3. ch. 20; 25 Geo. 3. ch. 57. The first is general; the rest are acts for repealing and amending the original law. The whole certainly requires various alterations and improvements.

From the Appendix we learn that upwards of £100 per mile, was expended in repairing the Portsmouth road in 1805.

The Appendix to this Report, with explanatory figures, will be given in our next.

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The attention paid by our legislature to our public highways cannot but be pleasing to every one who considers the importance of those means of communication, and the immense and increasing traffic which is conducted upon them: we could, at the same time, be glad to direct the attention of the considerate to the state of the beasts of draught and burthen; to whose toil and activity we are infinitely beholden. Humanity unites with policy in recommending this enquiry, and we wish for the *experimental* remarks of *practical* men on the subject. By way, however, of shewing that we do not depise theory, we insert the following thoughts of an ingenious foreigner, who seems to have investigated this matter from very laudable motives.—His principles are open to investigation as well as those of other writers: and we think that some of them are liable to exceptions: at least, until they have been further elucidated.

ON THE PROGRESSIVE MOTION OF ANIMALS, AND THE MEANS OF CONVEYANCE. From *Annales des Arts*, N°. 71. The Chevalier *Fossombroni* is member of the Institut at Bologna, of the academy at St. Petersburgh, &c. &c.

From the days of Aristotle to the present time, authors who have written on the motion of quadrupeds, and especially that of horses, have entertained different opinions, says M. de Fossonbroni, respecting the disposition of their feet while in progress. Some think that the horse raises his feet alternately in a diagonal direction; others, that he lifts up the two on the same side.(1.)Some are of opinion that the disposition changes with corresponding changes in the mode of the animal's progression. The author of the present work shews, by a

(1.) Artists and anatomists for a long time have been engaged in writing *pro* and *con*. Paolo Uccello, represented in the Metropolitan church of Florence, a warrior (I think Castruccio-Castricani) mounted on a horse, whose two feet are raised on the same side; while Jane Bologna constantly represented his horses with the feet of their different sides lifted up. This last action is more pleasing to the eye, and the masses seem to be more collected.

very simple argument, analogous to the principles of plain geometry, that both motions may take place in the progress of quadrupeds. If we fix the four angular points of a rectangle, destined to advance one after the other, upon condition that one of the anterior points shall always precede one of the posterior ones, or *vice versâ*, it is impossible that, in the prolonged execution of that movement, they should not so combine as to be alternately sometimes in a diagonal, and sometimes in a parallel direction. In like manner it happens, when a horse walks, if we observe the movement of the hind leg, that we may perceive that the fore leg on the same side moves next; and if the horse first steps out the fore foot, the hind foot, which is diagonal with respect to it, succeeds.

Subsequent to this remark, M. de Fossombroni investigates the differences which may exist between the method of conveying goods upon horses' backs, or in carts. The useful researches which the author has published on one of the provinces of Etruria, called *La Val di Chiana*, have enabled him to collect a great number of facts in proof that the mules which carry burthens on their backs, are capable of service during ten or twelve years, especially in mountainous countries; (2) while those mules that draw carts are unfit for labour after four years. In fact in this latter occupation, animals have a greater number of muscles in action at one time, and their lungs become fatigued on account of their more frequently fetching breath. Observation teaches us further, that the circulation of the blood is accelerated in proportion to the intensity of the efforts of the muscles, and that when the coats of the vessels are violently contracted the rapidity of the circulating fluids is greatly increased. But the exigencies of commerce require the conveyance of a great quantity of goods and commodities in a given space of time, and the loss of the animals is not placed in competition with the advantages resulting from the speedier transit.

An animal, when walking, incessantly vibrates from right to left like a pendulum, through the necessity of preserving the centre of gravity perpendicular with the base line. This center of gravity, then, describes a double curve; the form of which the author has determined by analytical argument. His equations assign an exact valuation of the advantage possessed by an animal that elevates or removes the weight by drawing, and with the aid of a machine, in comparison with another that bears a similar weight by immediate contact: (3.) and although these reasonings evince the indisputable situation of the weight relative to the animal which draws, yet they do not prove, as some have supposed, that the animal acts exclusively in consequence of his own weight; for the load drawn by horses in a carriage may greatly exceed, including the weight of the carriage, that of the horses, which is evidently owing to the power of the wheel, or of any other *purchase* that might be used. (4.)

(2.) It is important to pay attention to the height of the intended load, and to the particular distribution of the weight, before you load the animal; neither is the form of the pack-saddle to be overlooked. To load the kneeling camel with facility, it is customary among the Arabs to raise the exterior branches of the pack-saddle to a great height, and, of course, the load. As the animal moves in his paces one may see the masses of lading alternately shaking backwards and forwards, which is of great injury to the animal, without any advantage in point of service. This inconvenience is not so remarkable in quadrupeds that are lower on their legs. It is advisable, therefore, to make the pack-saddle in such a manner that the load be as close as possible to the body of the animal, and that the common centre of gravity coincide with that of the quadruped on an horizontal plane. However, the pack-saddle or pannier must neither impede the breathing of the animal, nor the action of his muscles.

(3.) A very essential object, which is almost ever neglected with regard to carts, waggons, and other vehicles intended to convey articles of merchandize, is the necessity of having the centre of gravity of the vehicles and the load coincident with that of the horse in the shafts. In the present distribution of the load, a portion of the effort is destined to functions that impede the drawing. Fashion, however, has luckily removed this defect in private carriages. In would be very easy, and by no means expensive to place the scantling above the axle-tree and the shafts below it, and to fasten the whole by means of pins and proper coins: according to this method it would be more easy to load the cart, which would not be so liable to overset. This lowering, however, of the bottom must have its bounds, according as the vehicle may be subject to deep ruts in bad roads, or in crossing fords and brooks. The elevation of the centre of gravity is prejudicial to the animal no less than inconsistent with the preservation of the wheels and roads. Perhaps it would be proper for the legislature to interfere, and to prescribe particular proportions which would be as interesting, in my opinion, as preventing the cuts and delvings occasioned by the fellies being too narrow, when the cart is heavily loaded.

(4.) It is needless to observe that no exaggerated consequence could be deduced from this aphorism. Thus in fixing the dimensions of those machines attention must be paid: 1. To the causes which impede the progress of the wheels; 2. To the placing of the cen-

M. de Fossombroni, next considering the fatigue which affects the animal when loaded, observes, as the result of several scientific researches, " that in order to preserve animals " that carry weights over level ground equally " with those that go up hills or mountains, " it is indispensable that they should both " carry and draw at the same time."—It is evident that the value of this estimation increases or decreases according to the slope. From thence proceeds the necessity of loading more *backwards* the horses that go up hill, which method is not very injurious in descending, provided it be not carried to excess. M. de Fossombroni estimates the efforts of the animal when drawing up hill, as being equal to those he must exert to keep a cart steady when going down hill.

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tre of gravity, as mentioned in the preceding note. The legislature having determined the width of the fellies of wheels, has greatly contributed to improvements in the building of carts, &c. ; but a law for regulating the diameter of the wheels according to the weight of the load, would be equally conducive to the preservation of the animals, and to the conveniency of the carmen or waggoners.

DESCRIPTION OF BUENOS AYRES, MONTE-VIDEO, THE RIVER PLATA, AND THE NEIGHBOURHOOD, WITH THEIR INHABITANTS, PRODUCTIONS, COMMERCE, &c.

THE late conquest of Buenos Ayres by the British arms, with its probable consequences, has excited in the public mind, a strong desire for better acquaintance with the nature, productions, and general character of that country. We are happy, therefore, in presenting to our readers [from the Spanish *Universal Traveller*] what we believe to be the latest communications published in Madrid on that subject, especially as there is every reason to depend on their authenticity. For this translation, with various other favours, we are obliged to a friend of the highest respectability.

" Buenos Ayres stands on the western bank of the great river Plata. The climate is the most favourable in the world. The whole territory of the present government was formerly under the jurisdiction of the Viceroy of Peru. In 1778, it was detached from this government, by which it has gained considerably; but particularly by a royal ordinance of the same year, that declared the trade of this government to be free. In 1791, Spanish as well as foreign merchants, obtained permission to import negroes, also iron manufactures, and implements of husbandry ; and to export all kinds of fruits. Thus agriculture and population were encouraged, and accordingly they have considerably increased. From the same causes, in a short time, Buenos Ayres, on account of its uncommon fertility, may be considered as the granary of Spain and America. Another ordinance of April 10, 1793, allowed the exportation of salt provisions, and tallow free of duty.

These ordinances relieved industry and commerce from their most galling fetters, and the prosperity of the country must annually increase. For in these parts, nature only requires not to be impeded, and she will effect the rest. The province has an amazing extent of the most fertile fields ; which are intersected in every direction by innumerable rivers and streams that fall into the Plata. The numbers of cattle, horses, sheep, and pigs, amount to millions. Salt is found in abundance, and there are plenty of harbours and creeks, where small vessels can be loaded with salt provisions, and carry them to other places. The rivers Plata, Paraguay, and Parana, with other small streams, offer the most desirable advantages ; and the harbours of Buenos Ayres, Monte-Video, Maldonado, and the bay of Burragan, are spacious and secure. The whale and wolf-fish fisheries are very lucrative, and the chace in the interior of the country is no less profitable. For the tigers [properly, the janguara] are no less prized for their beautiful skins, than the ostriches are for their feathers. In the districts where the missionaries reside, cotton, hemp, and flax, are cultivated ; and the province is not entirely destitute of gold mines, for gold is found in the neighbourhood of Maldonado and San Luis, about 200 leagues from the capital.

We may judge of the immense herds of cattle by the number of skins annually exported to Spain. In 1792, 825,609 hides were exported from this province ; without reckoning those sent to the Brasils in exchange for slaves. What are consumed in the country, and what are spoiled in the warehouses, are likewise excluded.

The most correct idea of the prosperity and trade of the province may be deduced from the number of vessels entered inwards and cleared outwards, with their cargoes.

In 1796, there arrived 35 ships from Cadiz, 22 from Barcelona, Malaga, and Alfaquez ; 9 from Corunna ; 5 from Santander ; 1 from Vigo ; and another from Gijon. The value of these cargoes, consisting of national productions, amounted to 1,705,866 American piastres. The value of the foreign goods, on board the same ships, amounted to 1,148,078 piastres. On the contrary, 26 vessels sailed for Cadiz ; 10 for Barcelona, Malaga, and Alicant ; 11 for Corunna ; and 4 for Santander. These carried the value of 1,425,701 piastres in coined and uncoined gold. The

silver exported amounted to 2,556,304 piastres, and 1,076,877 piastres in produce.

The export articles consisted of

874,593 untanned hides;
43,752 horse skins;
24,436 fine skins;
46,800 arrobs (25 lb. each) of refuse tallow;
771 arrobs of Vicunna camel-sheep's wool;
291 arrobs of guanaco ditto; and
2,204 arrobs of ordinary wool;
11,890 goose wings;
451,000 ox-horns;
3,223 cwt. of copper;
40 do. of tin;
2,549 tanned hides;
222 dozen of prepared sheep-skins;
2,128 cwt. of beef; and
185 cwt. of pork.

Two vessels arrived from the Havannah. They were laden with

22,159 arrobs of sugar;
239 casks of brandy;
212 barrels of honey;
258 arrobs of cocoa;
1,864 arrobs of white wax;
750 yaras (1 yard each) of Acana wood.

Total value 123,562 piastres.

In return there sailed from the Havannah 14 vessels, carrying

24,060 piastres in gold;
69,050 cwt. of beef;
13,600 arrobs of tallow;
252 dozen of prepared sheep-skins;
323 fine skins;
190 arrobs of wool;
280 goose-wings;

Total piastres, 160,110.

Two ships from Lima and Guayaquil brought

10,075 arrobs of sugar;
200 pieces of rock-salt;
1,472 arrobs of cocoa;
816 arrobs of rice;
378 lbs. of cinnamon;
990 lbs. of indigo;

Total piastres 50,154.

To Lima were carried

2,094 hatchets;
238 slaves;
1,680 arrobs of tallow;
640 lbs. of thread;
42 dozen pair of silk stockings; and
120 common hats.

Total exports, 67,150 piastres.

During the same year (1796) four Spanish and five foreign ships brought 1350 negroes to Buenos Ayres. On the contrary, nine Spanish, and two foreign ships, employed in the slave trade sailed from thence. The value they exported amounted to 159,820 piastres, and in national produce and goods to 24,703 piastres.

But it appears, that latterly, owing to the war, and to the insecurity of trade, circumstances considerably changed for the worse. This is evident from the Spanish "Mercantile Courier" which contains a letter from Buenos-Ayres, Oct. 31, 1798; stating, that in the capital, as well as in Montevideo, there were about 3 millions of hides, which could not be exported, on account of liability to capture. Many European goods were entirely wanting, or had risen to an exorbitant price. There was a particular scarcity of European cloth. The deficiency was supplied by woollen stuffs, either manufactured in the country, or imported from Peru. These stuffs were much prized, and about a million of ells were imported into Buenos-Ayres. The most approved come from the country of the Chiquitos and Moxos. Brandy and Spanish liquors were not to be procured at any price. Since that period the scarcity must have increased; yet the inhabitants endeavour to obviate it by an augmentation of interior industry. Thus in fact the province will be ultimately the gainer, and be induced to acquire a knowledge and exercise of its own proper strength.

Thus much of the province in general: of particular parts the work contains the following information.

Montevideo is the most considerable harbour in the Viceroyship, and at the same time the most advantageously situated. Don Bruno de Zabala was the first who settled here in 1731, with fourteen or fifteen families from Palma, one of the Canaries. Provisions are plentiful and cheap. As on one hand the means of subsistence are easily procured, so on the other, the common people are inclined to indolence. Hence has arisen a vagabond tribe called *ganderios* [wanderers.] They live like gypsies, except stealing. They are either natives of Montevideo, or from the neighbouring villages. They are badly clothed; a coarse shirt, and a still coarser coat are their whole attire. These and the furniture of their horses serve them for bedding, the saddle supplying the place of a pillow. They wander about with a small guitar, and sing songs either of their own composing, or what they hear from others. Love is generally the subject. Thus they travel through the country, and endeavour to amuse the farmers, who, in return maintain them during their stay, and provide them with horses when they have lost their own. This liberality ought not to appear strange, for horses are scarcely of any value. They rove wild in the immeasurable plains, and belong to any one who catches them. They are taken in snares, which are immediately drawn to-

gether, and the animal is thrown on the ground.

The *ganderios* generally begin their peregrinations in parties of four, six, or more. They are so unconcerned about means of subsistence, that they only provide themselves with a knife, and a cord with some balls made fast to the end of it. These are sufficient to supply all their wants. If they are oppressed by hunger, they lay snares to catch a wild cow or young steer. They then throw the animal down, bind its legs, and cut out a piece of the flank, before it is dead, slice it, and lay it on the fire; when it is half broiled, they eat it without any further preparation. If they happen accidentally to carry any thing with them, salt is the only ingredient for cooking. Others kill an ox, merely for the sake of eating the meat from the ribs. Others, on the contrary, covet only the tongue, which they broil in the embers. The rest of the animal is left a prey to carnivorous birds and wild beasts. There are others, again, who only take the marrow-bones, which they clear from the meat, and hold them over the fire till the marrow begins to melt. The manner of dressing a cow among these people is most remarkable. All the entrails are taken out, then the tallow and fat is collected and laid into the carcase. Dry cow-dung is prepared and lighted, and held over the fat till it inflames and incorporates with the meat and bones. To this end the carcase is closed as well as possible, so that the smoke issues from the mouth and limbs. Thus it burns a whole night, or a considerable part of the day. When ready, the company sits down around the animal, and each person cuts a slice where he likes, which is eaten without salt or bread. The rest remains on the ground, except any one takes a piece for a person which he is particularly fond of.

There are two roads from Montevideo to Buenos-Ayres, one by land as far as el Real de San Carlos. In dry seasons, this is the nearest; but in wet weather the smallest streams are so swelled, that they cannot be passed without danger, if at all. At San Carlos there are plenty of boats to cross the Plata which is there ten leagues broad; they carry orders from government, and all kinds of provisions. The common way is by the river, as there are always boats at Montevideo. In favourable weather the passage, which is forty leagues, may be made in 24 hours. But it may happen that it is not made in 14 days, when the wind is contrary.

About 30 years ago Buenos-Ayres, on account of its rank and importance, was reckoned the fourth city in the viceroyship of Peru. For at that time, Lima, Cuzco, and Santiago in Chili, held priority. Since that period circumstances have changed very much. In our days Lima only can be considered as more important; and the time may come when Buenos-Ayres will hold an equal rank with Lima. Since it has been erected into a separate viceroyship, and trade and agriculture have been promoted, Buenos-Ayres has increased considerably, and enlarges every day. Formerly there were no country-houses, and no good fruit-trees except peaches. At present we do not find any person of middling rank, who does not raise all kinds of fruits, vegetables, and flowers. The houses in general are not very high, yet they are light, and mostly well built. And the interior opulence does not disgrace the exterior appearance.

Men and women dress in the Spanish fashion, for all the modes are carried from the mother country. Only they dress in some places more than in others. The women of Buenos-Ayres are reckoned the most beautiful and pleasing in America; and though they do not rival the ladies of Lima in elegance, yet their manner of dressing is not less attractive, and is reckoned more tasteful.

Until 1747, there was no post established in Buenos-Ayres or in any part of the province of Tucuman, notwithstanding the great trade carried on with the neighbouring provinces. Each merchant was obliged to send his letters by a messenger, at his own expence. The neighbours availed themselves of such opportunities, and endeavoured to promote their correspondence; or, what was mostly the case, every traveller was loaded with letters and commissions, by which certainly the intercourse was not particularly accelerated, for these passengers travel as far as Jujin or Mendoza in a two-wheeled carriage. In 1748, posts were established.

Buenos-Ayres is well supplied with every variety of provision. Meat of all kinds, especially, is so plentiful, that it is often given away to the poor. The river water is thick, but soon settles when kept in large earthen or wooden vessels. Fish also is in great abundance.

No snow falls within the jurisdiction of Buenos-Ayres, or in the province of Tucuman; the river is sometimes covered with a thin coating of ice, which is carefully collected for cooling liquors.

The climate is very healthy: this is proved by the proportion of births to deaths; hence it well deserves its name. Yet in June, July, August and September, fogs rise on the water which oppress the lungs. And the strong winds that blow from the Pampas, (called therefore Pamperos) are very distressing, owing to their violence.

Whoever wishes to travel from thence to Peru (about 900 leagues) has many things to

think of, and much to provide against. This is true particularly in regard to the Indians who inhabit the Pampas; for they attack travellers in large bodies and do them great injury. These Indians, as well as other wild tribes, set watches to observe the strength and number of the travellers, and to conceal their own. The spies are unarmed, and place themselves as if they were abandoned by their own party. The sluggishness of these Pampas beggars all description. Hence they increase little, and hopes are entertained that the race will be extinct in a short time. They are treacherous and cowardly; and though they handle the lance well on horseback, yet they cannot hold out in a contest. Their victories over the Spaniards are therefore rare. They only conquer when they can surprise their enemies by ambuscade, or when they fight fifteen to one against Europeans."

. . . . . .

As Montevideo has been in all probability the object of an attempt by our brave soldiers and sailors, we shall annex the account given of this town and its vicinity, by the Rev. William Gregory, one of the missionaries captured in the Duff. We have every reason to be satisfied of its correctness, and authenticity, having had a knowledge of the writer, and having seen some parts of his Journals in MS.

Tuesday, March 12, 1799.

Early in the morning we entered Rio de la Plata; to the south no land could possibly be discovered, this river is so very extensive. Two high rocks now appeared in sight. Within two hours we perceived the high mountain of Monte-Video. It is very lofty, and has a staff on the summit, on which a flag is hoisted when any ship appears in sight.

Wednesday, May 1st. Mr. Turner, Mr. Broughton and I, went this morning to survey the high mountain of MONTE-VIDEO. We rode on very pleasantly over hills, and neglected land, having at times to cross a few brooks, which nearly made our horses swim, till we arrived at the bottom, where there is a guard house with Spanish troops. After some enquiries they seemed to suppose us either Frenchmen or North Americans, and on our informing them that we wished to ascend the mount, they directed us to the best way, and pointing to a magazine about a quarter of a mile distant, told us that we must not go by that way or near it. We proceeded as ordered and found this road the most practicable. We soon, however, were compelled to dismount, and climbed to the top, where, standing by the flag-staff, we enjoyed a most extensive prospect, as the day was uncommonly clear.

On every side we beheld a horizon without bounds, while the sight was transported from mountain to mountain, resting at intervals on the mighty ocean, which can here be traced to a vast extent. The imagination seemed to command the whole globe, while our wandering eyes surveyed the town, the river, and shipping, which appeared little to the view from the height of our situation, but were in a moment directed to the vast chains of land and rivers, which ran into the fathomless deep, or in the river La Plata.

RIO DE LA PLATA.—This river, if it may be so called, seemed to me like the ocean, as no land could be seen, and from the best information I could obtain, is fifty or sixty leagues broad. The English bank, so called, near the entrance, is noted for having been fatal to several ships. I have before noticed two rocks which we first discovered, and within a few miles of Monte Video runs a shoal a considerable way out into the river, and some sand banks lie farther up, which render the passage rather unsafe. Besides an infinite number of small rivers, it abounds with lakes, some of which we could perceive from the mount, I suppose between thirty and forty miles distant, which ran into the country and watered its plains.

About thirty leagues up the river on the north side, lie the town and harbour of Monte Video, formed by a point of land, or the high mountain opposite.

The harbour is so compact by nature that it forms an excellent bay for ships of any dimension, which may here safely ride at anchor. In appearance near the town, to my view, it seemed to resemble a part of the river Medway, above his Majesty's dock-yard at Chatham, only considerably broader, and the shores being rocky, both they and the water were much clearer. At the entrance is a fort, which commands the harbour, but of inconsiderable force, opposite to which is the high mountain.

It abounds with excellent fish; the cat-fish are numerous, some two feet long; a fish like a perch, smelts, and others, the names of which I did not understand. I saw no shell-fish at this place, except a few mussels near a rock, exceedingly small, and not worth eating. It is said that this river annually overflows its banks. When the wind blew from the south, it rose six or seven feet, but when it blew from the north or west it immediately fell.

TOWN OF MONTE VIDEO.—This makes a most flattering appearance from a view of it in the harbour; for as it rises from the shore its ascent gives it a very respectable look. The landing place is composed of large stones roughly put together, on which stands a sentinel on guard, and at a small distance a guard-house with soldiers, and a custom-house with officers, who inspect whatever is brought on shore. The houses are built of large stones and bricks, only one story high, a few excepted; their roofs are flat, and the

same as the floor, where the house is floored, though some have only earth, and the best but bricks. The governor's residence, which is the extent of a large square yard, and resembles a range of livery stables in England, is of this construction: some have windows, but few any glass, and these bear a strong resemblance to a prison, others have none. Those at the corner of a street have two doors, one of which is shut on that side where the sun shines in the morning, and opened in the afternoon. Some few houses belonging to people of distinction are two and three stories high, with a balcony in front. None, however, that I could perceive, either in town or country have chimnies. Most kindle their fire either in the yard, which is brought into the room when the weather is wet or cold, in firepans, or have small fire-holes built in an outhouse adjacent. The shops make but a sorry appearance, as scarcely any have a window. Those without the gate are distinguished by a small vane or flag, where every article of sustenance is sold, the landlord of which is at once innkeeper and grocer.

The streets run straight, and cross each other at right angles, but, with one or two exceptions, they are by far the worst for travelling that imagination can conceive; for being composed of rock-stones and sand, the large cavities make it very disagreeable both for man and beast, especially in rainy weather.

As the inhabitants in general ride, they pay little attention to the improvement of their roads. Strange as it may seem, it is a fact, that to fill up a hole they have killed one of the team to assist the wheel in passing over.

The town abounds with rats and flies, which are a prodigious plague to all but the inhabitants, and even to them in some degree. The rats that have been killed lay copiously strewed at morning in the streets, and to keep off the flies in the day they have large bundles of ostrich feathers. Near the top of the town is a market-place, about three hundred yards square, whither abundance of fruit is brought, which although so plentiful in the country is dear in the town, as the seller puts a high value on his trouble of carriage. On the west a large church is building in a superior style, which can be discerned at a great distance.

At the extremities of this town they are enlarging and strengthening the fortification, which is composed of excellent stone.

The town, as also the mountain opposite, forming a peninsula, is bounded by the river, except on that part which leads into the country, and is inclosed by a fort-wall and gate, at which a guard of troops is placed with an officer of inspection, and every evening at eight o'clock the gates are shut.

Trade and Commerce.—Of these I can say but little, as to all appearance they are very inconsiderable. Manufactories I was informed are prohibited, for the purpose of keeping them in a state of dependance upon Old Spain. Some few mechanics, however, are to be found. Taylors and shoemakers form the most numerous body of men, who are engaged in regular employment. There are one or two blacksmith's shops, in which charcoal is used, and the workmen, though exceedingly slow, can finish their work tolerably well. The circumstance that chiefly drew my attention in one of these shops was, to see the master nearly as clean as if he had been in a milliner's shop. Bullock's hides, tallow, dried tongues, leopards', tigers', lions', and other skins; the drug Paraguay, and salt-dried beef, are all articles of exportation; besides the treasures of Peru brought down the river, and shipped for Old Spain, with other commodities of the country. No ships come regularly to this port, and only three or four make an annual voyage to Europe, and during the war even this small number has decreased. Clothing of every description, and every article of household utensils are excessively dear, and though the houses are uncomfortable in many respects the rent is very high.

Air, Soil, Produce.—The air of this country is temperate and exceedingly salutary, though at mid-day the sun is very powerful: some of the Brethren experienced this in a manner which caused them excessive pain: having but one shirt each, when they got out into the country near some water, they put them off for the purpose of washing, when not aware of the sun's scorching beams, the skin was peeled off their backs during the interval.

For ten miles from the town it is hilly, but from that it runs several hundred miles one continued level. Nothing can exceed the fertility of the soil, or the beautiful verdure which overspreads the whole face of the country. The soil, without manure, will produce vegetables, almost, if not of every description in Europe; Indian and European corn, apples, pears, peaches, nectarines, figs, melons, water-melons, cucumbers, onions, cabbages, lettuces, Cayenne pepper, &c. &c. grow in great plenty; and some cherry and walnut trees which had been brought from Europe thrived well. The hedges are composed of excellent quinces, some fourteen inches in circumference: and if a proper degree of attention was paid to cultivation, it is impossible to say to what extent the produce might be carried. The valuable herbs, paraguay and annas, &c. appeared to grow spontaneously.

This district differs from others parts of South America, with respect to wood for the purpose of fuel, of which there is but little, and the greatest part of it is brought from the

river St. Lucia. Farther up in the vicinity of Buenos Ayres, within three miles of the shore, there is abundance of large, good timber, well adapted both for building ships and houses. Near the town is a large quarry of stones, in which a number of the natives are employed: and in different directions, about six feet from the surface, is a ridge of alabaster, but it is not used. Mushrooms grow spontaneously in the plains, but are never eaten by the inhabitants, being considered as noxious.

ANIMALS.—The animals of this country are numerous, particularly oxen, horses, sheep, hogs, mules, dogs, lions, tigers, leopards, wolves, beavers, seals, ermines, horned beetles, serpents, adders, &c.—Of the feathered kind, they have geese, ducks, pigeons, partridges, ostriches, a variety of birds of beautiful species, and all manner of wild fowl.

Horses are innumerable, lively, and beautiful; they are only fit for the saddle, and are admirable for their make as well as for their swiftness, and the inhabitants are proud of their long manes and tails. They live entirely in the pastures, and are frequently used throughout the day without receiving food or water, yet even in these circumstances they refused corn. They are not only good but cheap. Even in the neighbourhood of the town, where they are comparatively dear, one at ten dollars can scarcely be excelled throughout England. They are so trained as to regard no regular road, and quite the reverse of the English horses, when about to ascend an hill, set off at a gallop.

Oxen are as large in general as those in England, though, as there is not the least attention paid to them, they do not become so fat, but finer creatures I scarce ever saw. To pick out one from a herd consisting of several hundreds, not far from town, I have been asked two dollars; but a few miles farther up the country, four for the same money; and twelve miles, two for half a crown. Beef, in consequence is cheap. I have bought as capital a piece as ever I partook of, including the sirloin, which I suppose might weigh about 50lbs. for about 3½d. English money. On my once informing one of the dealers in cattle that a bullock in England cost five pounds, he stood amazed, and began to pride himself on his own country. The owner of the Brethren's house was one who killed a number almost daily, and as often sent a quarter for our friends, as most kill chiefly for the hides and tallow; and I have seen some hundred carcases lying in the fields, which, after being skinned were left for the dogs, hogs, and birds of prey, which swarm in these places in vast numbers. Farther inland, bullocks are killed only for the sake of the tongues, which is the only part they eat.

Mules are very good, which they use in their watering carts, and are much larger than in common. Hogs are also numerous and excellent. They live on grass, fruit, beef, &c. Whether great or small, their price is about half a crown per head. The sheep in this country have four horns, but are not so fat as the English; the meat, however, is very white and sweet. At market a sheep will cost 3s. 6d. but in the country from 20 to 30 per dollar. Fowls are excessively dear, the same value as an ox.

Wild beasts are numerous and large, lions, tygers, leopards, &c. the natives hunt them and bring their skins to town for sale, hundreds of which I have seen. Some of the natives, who catch them when young, keep them at the door of their huts like dogs. Among some skins brought to town by the hunters I purchased one, which measures eight feet in length exclusive of the tail. Ostriches are also large and in great numbers.—They will cover an hill; but little notice is taken of them; the only use which I ever saw made of their feathers was, as a broom to sweep away the flies. Partridges are innumerable, and parroquets abound. As many of the carcases of the bullocks were left in the fields, a vast number of birds, like seagulls, would come down together, after the butchers had left the ground, and cover a quarter of a mile of land, so that it scarcely could be seen. The birds nests appeared to be curiously constructed, some of which I took for the purpose of inspection: they were built around branches near the stem of the tree, of different materials, such as mud, &c. as big as a large cocoa-nut; in the most concealed part is the entrance, which runs round the fabric like a periwinkle, till at the bottom is a feathered nest, much like those in England. It is difficult to procure either young or eggs from such a building, and it was some time before I was able fully to inspect the whole.

Dogs are numerous, of different species, disagreeable and dangerous. Most huts on the outside of the town keep from eight to twelve of these animals, which are exceedingly troublesome to all passengers, and will surround horse and man. The other species are what the inhabitants call fire-dogs; these are not so large, have no hair, and their skin feels more like the human; they are used by these people in the cool weather to sleep at their feet to keep them warm. They had a disagreeable appearance. The abundance of heads, entrails, feet, &c. left at the different places of slaughter, afford plenty of provision for these numerous creatures, which so rapidly increase that the governor orders the soldiers, for a number of days, twice every year, to kill all they meet, when thousands are slain.

The Spaniards here live in opulence and in-

dolence, most servile work being executed by negroes and natives, and few families of any note having less than six or more negroes to attend upon them. There appeared to be a mixture of effeminacy and austerity in their disposition: at one moment they manifest that feeling sympathy which is sufficient to affect the beholder; at another they seem to be capable of alarming a stranger.

The heat of the sun may occasion some small difference between the complexion of the Spaniards here and in Europe: they are dark, but a few of the ladies are fair. The troops wear long black whiskers, and make but an indifferent appearance. The gentlemen differ but little in their dress from Europeans, wear cloaks, and without them in London would be taken for livery servants. The dress of the ladies differs more; they wear no caps, but their long hair is tied all round in a bunch at the top, and some have elegant circular combs: they use no gown, but a short jacket, which covers the top of their petticoat or other apparel; and shoes singularly high: they cover the head, and nearly the face, with a hood, which comes round over the shoulders, and being black, when they go to mass, with their beads and crucifixes on their arms, I have taken them at a distance for a company of friars. The children of both sexes are dressed, to one of a month old, as nearly as possible in the same stile, are put into breeches before the month, and when it is possible to collect the hair either in a bunch or tie, it is done, and powdered; nay, in town, little creatures that can scarcely run alone, and others in their mothers' arms are dressed in this manner.

It is the universal custom immediately after dinner for both ladies and gentlemen to retire to bed, and they would be as much disappointed if prevented from doing so as we would for want of a night's rest. The curious manner in which the ladies drink their tea, which they call *mattee*, rather surprised us: this herb, Paraguay, so generally used, is put into a cup, commonly the shell of a pomegranate, the stem of which is turned to form a handle; in this the tea is put, both the leaf and pieces of the stem, they then pour hot water upon it, and draw the liquid through a tube, which is made either of reed, tin, or silver, and while partaking of it look as if they were smoaking a pipe. Its taste is bitter, and few of us had much relish for it. Some of the chief people have pots of silver, which look very well; this drink is more universally used than perhaps any other by people of every description, and the ladies, content with water, can scarcely be prevailed to taste spirits or wine, some of which they have; the wine, both red and white, is of their own manufacturing, but the spirits are imported from the Brazils.

NATIVES.—The natives of Paraguay differ from the Spaniards both in person and dress: their complexion is of an olive hue and rather darker than the other. They are of a middle stature and well made, have flat faces, and jet black long stout hair. They seem in general to be a quiet though robust people, yet some few exhibit a disposition quite the reverse. Their dress is an oblong garment, like a striped rug, about a yard wide, with a hole in the middle to admit the head, it hangs down before and behind, with the sides open, falling loose as low as the knees, and leaving the arms unrestrained. Their stockings and boots are made of skins, flayed from the legs of horses and oxen, which in shape are exactly the same as when taken from the beast, as they never cut or alter them. Their shoes are merely a piece of stout skin turned up, with holes, and tied with slips of the same: they wear drawers over a short petticoat, which at the knee forms a fringe: those near town have jackets which they wear under the oblong cloth, and the head is covered with a small hat, tied under the chin, which they loosen when they salute each other. Their huts are the rough branches of trees tied together with pieces of the skins of beasts, the roof is covered with long grass, rushes, and weeds. Four sticks tied at each corner, with a bullock's hide, make their bed, hung up in the hut. Round some of these huts a wall is erected about four feet high, entirely built of bullock's heads, one above the other, with the horns, as cut from the animal's neck. These men are healthy, and exceedingly alert, especially on horseback, to which they are trained from their childhood. Their food chiefly consists of beef, fruit, and water.

Both Spaniards and natives always carry long knives at their side, and even children are indulged in the same liberty, to which they apply for defence as naturally as one would in England lift his hand to return another a blow on the face.

Their manner of catching bullocks to kill, is remarkable: if it is but one they want, they ride after him over the plains till he is caught; but if more than one, they at different places have pinfolds, into which they drive a number. When ready to begin, two men mount their horses, with a catch-rope 100 yards in length, having a long noose at one end, while the other is fastened to a ring in the saddle; one now rides in among the oxen, throws the rope around the horns of that which he chooses and gallops out. The creature finding himself entangled generally runs to the extremity that the rope will admit, and the horse draws him near a suitable place. The other native is now ready to watch the opportunity of the prancing of the beast, and after swinging the rope several times over his head, throws it with a dexterity peculiar to

these men, and catches him round the hind leg. Both horses now draw the rope tight in two opposite directions, and they are so trained to this exercise as to stand firm, that the bullock cannot move. Another man who is standing by with a large knife, now advances to the animal, which, if he supposes not to be steady, he cuts the ham-strings of the hind leg that is not secured, upon which the bullock immediately falls, when his throat is cut right across, and he is soon dead.

By the same method they catch horses in the fields; robbers also catch a man by means of this rope, when he can be drawn from his horse, and rendered incapable of resistance.

Speaking of his garden at a little distance from the town, Mr. G. says,

The fruitfulness of the garden and orchard was beyond description. Thousands, and tens of thousands of apples, peaches, nectarines, lay perishing under the trees, while they were so loaded that few can form any idea of the profusion: perhaps it is not equalled in the whole globe; it is impossible however that it should be excelled, as some trees appeared like a solid mass of fruit, with large branches broken down to the earth, unable to support their burden. Great abundance of figs also, with most of those vegetables which grow in Europe, was here to be found, as cabbages, lettuce, turnips, radishes, cucumbers, onions, French beans, &c.

A number of apple trees made a curious appearance, as they were loaded with fruit and bloomed at the same time. At the bottom of the orchard was a small river, with good water, and abundance of small fish.

He describes the Spanish inhabitants as not unfavourable to the English; as hospitable, generous, considerate, and though strongly attached to their own religion, yet they offered to *connive* at Protestantism, in order to engage the services of the English. On the whole his account of them is very favourable. We understand that a copy of this work is not to be procured.

The city of CORDOVA mentioned in the London Gazette, [see page 193] to which the Spanish viceroy has retired, and to which he was carrying the treasure, is above four hundred miles W. of Buenos-Ayres. It is the see of a Bishop, and has several fine Convents in it. The inhabitants trade chiefly to Peru and Chili, and receive silver in return; the laity are rich, the clergy still richer.

Above Buenos-Ayres on the River la Plata, is a cataract which impedes the navigation.

SAN SACRAMENTO, is a town opposite Buenos-Ayres; about 90 miles above Monte Video: it was founded by the Portuguese, but ceded to Spain, in 1778.

SANTA FE, is a town of middle size, about 240 miles from Buenos-Ayres.

To the Editor of the LITERARY PANORAMA.

OPERA DE LONDRES.

Un nouveau ballet héroique *Tamerlan et Bajazet* a eu le plus grand succès à l'Opéra de Londres, appelé par excellence le théâtre du Roi, *King's Theatre.* Les journalistes l'ont loué comme ils louent tout ce qui a le bonheur d'amuser le public opulent qui fréquente ce théâtre, c'est-à-dire, sans mesure et sans restriction. L'un d'eux cependant, dans son zèle pour la décence publique, assez ouvertement violée à la seconde représentation de ce ballet, nous fait connoître une particularité des mœurs Angloises qui ne laissera pas d'étonner nos lecteurs. " Nous apprenons," dit-il, " que, par l'usage de quelques abonnés qui " envoient *vendre leurs billets en boutique au* " *plus haut enchérisseur*, les loges de quel- " ques dames de la plus grande distinction ont " été souillées par la présence de femmes per- " dues *(profligate women)* qui, avec une " bande *(a gang)* de leurs suivans et les bil- " lets à la main, en ont demandé et obtenu la " possession." Qui croiroit que des gens assez riches pour souscrire à un spectacle, où les moindres places coûtent 12 francs, seroient assez intéressés pour faire de leurs billets un pareil trafic? Qui le croiroit, surtout à Paris, où il n'est pas de pauvre auteur travaillant pour la *Gaieté* ou l'*Ambigu-Comique*, qui ne dédaignât un pareil lucre et qui ne fasse présent de ses billets, quoiqu'il puisse les regarder comme une partie de son salaire? On fait commerce de tout à Londres, nous dira-t-on; nous le savons bien; mais ce nouveau trait caractéristique de l'esprit mercantile qui y régne ne nous en a pas paru moins remarquable ni moins digne d'être conservé.—*Archives Littéraires de l'Europe, No. xxviii: Gazette Littéraire, p. xi.*

Presuming that you, Sir, like myself, are jealous for the honour of the British nation, and concluding from the appearance of the first number, that your work is more likely than any other to be read by the patrons of public amusements, and the polite arts in general, I beg leave to call your attention to the above extract; and to the disposition which it manifests in foreigners to judge of our public character, from similar occurrences.

When a nation which is considered as opulent and enlightened, patronizes an institution of whatever kind, its character is more or less implicated in the manner of conducting that institution. Whether the establishment be strictly speaking national, or whether the management of it be in certain individuals, who are understood to exert their best endeavours to gratify the public, makes little difference; the national taste is equally liable to exceptions, and praise or blame are equally due to the parties concerned, though under different denominations.

Foreigners are under the necessity of estimating our national manners from what

they observe in public. They must judge of the wealth and splendour of the city of London, not from the cash hoarded in our Bankers' repositories, in the strong room at the National Bank, or in the Treasury at the East-India House, but by what they see publicly exposed in our streets at the shop-windows of our dealers and tradesmen, and the innumerable warehouses of valuables from all parts of the earth, which display their attractions to fascinate the eye. They must judge of our general manners, not by the privacies of domestic life, but by those obvious and open incidents which all may notice, and which every man of observation will appreciate.

As places of the most public resort, we know that foreigners frequent our theatres, and from the remarks for which those assemblies afford them opportunities, they judge, determine, and report, on the British national character. It is natural that whoever wishes well to the reputation of his native country, should suffer extreme mortification in being obliged to admit the force of those censures of which sensible observers are not sparing, as to what passes in such places. When they affirm "I saw," "I heard," what can a modest Briton answer?—But, it may be said, these censures are not applicable to such theatres as are patronized by our superior classes: where the nobles of our land, with their families, including young persons of both sexes, are in the habit of attending, where the individuals who frequent them, being persons of great dignity and power, by a word speaking, by promoting a rival interest, or by merely suspending their favours, might produce serious consequences. In such institutions there can be no reason to complain of outraged decorum, or inattention to public morals. The company is select; for all are subscribers of the highest class, and of the highest spirit, who would not suffer their names to appear in the same list as is degraded by names of dubious character, still less if polluted by names whose characters are by no means dubious. It is for this reason I beg you, Sir, to give the Opera the very first place in your animadversions. It is notorious, that the subscription prices are enormous. It is notorious, that only in the box which any lady has appropriated to herself, can she venture to trust herself and her family. It is notorious, that other parts of the house, [and one especially] are occupied by a class of visitants not proper to be named. It is notorious that persons of this description do at times penetrate into the private boxes of some of our noblest families, ——Here I stop: for the inference most certainly is, among spectators who are not honoured by personal acquaintance with the ladies whom they presume they see in their places, that my Lady such an one, the Countess ——, her Grace, or her daughters as the case may be, indulged certain liberties, or practised certain airs which misbecame her rank. These circumstances are neither fictitious nor uncommon; and they loudly call on the Nobility of Britain to stipulate expressly with the Manager of the Opera House for the effectual preservation of public decorum, and to say in plain terms, "that no further subscription is to be expected, till it shall have been proved, that every possible means has been resorted to for removing the nuisance complained of: not resorted to by way of blind, or cover, but with the energy of authority, and with a determination to persist till the object be accomplished." It is a pity that a few of our noblemen, as well as their ladies, will not take this matter into their *active* consideration; that we might never again meet with sarcasms such as that which I have pointed out. It is not my intention to arraign, at this time, the interior management of this theatre: but it may be no more than fair to state for the information of those whom it concerns, that I have seen a paper, in which the general conduct of the Opera was very severely criticized. The writer goes so far as to say that the manager has fulfilled but few of the terms on which he holds his licence, that he wants the liberal and dignified spirit which is necessary to conduct the undertaking, that persons of distinction and fashion are universally dissatisfied, insomuch that a patent has actually been obtained for the establishment of a private theatre among the nobility, to which *only* correct characters should be admitted.—I must congratulate a spirit which thus protests by deeds as well as words, against the admission of improprieties into its amusements, and exerts itself to counteract evils which ere long would otherwise become irremediable: but, should this spirit prevail, though all who wish well to Britain would hail it as the omen of future prosperity, yet it may be asked, what will then be the state and character of the King's Theatre? It will be said of that, as it is now of others, "Who frequents it? Nobody, "who does not chuse to mingle with—— "and to be *included* accordingly."

The Opera season not being commenced, the manager has it in his power to take advantage of these hints thus publicly addressed to him, as well as of others, which I doubt not reach him privately, *before* the multiplicity of affairs absorbs his whole time, *before* he solicits the annual favours of his subscribers, *before* any previous arrangements can be pleaded in bar to his efforts, or as impediments to success, and *before* he feels himself bound by imperious necessity to submit to what he may now adopt with a very good grace. The time is not distant when he will hear further on this subject, and sentiments delivered in more dignified terms, and in

a more energetic manner than my feeble pen is capable of expressing. Nevertheless, as a word to the wise seldom fails intirely of its intention, so I hope what I have stated, will be perused by the manager with attention and complacency, and by the public as an instance and an assurance, that there is rising a spirit of observation and investigation on subjects which may with propriety be considered as national, though we know that, strictly speaking, they are rather articles of private adventure and emolument, than of public establishment and direction.

I am, Sir, yours, &c.

A MAN OF FASHION.

CONSIDERATIONS ON THE CHARACTER OF LORD THURLOW.

For some account of his Life, vide page 215.

THE accidents of life are in no profession more influential than in that of the law. Talents may labour without obtaining distinction during many years; yet, at last, some fortunate event may demonstrate that their possessor is not a mere dolt who had been so long only plodding, but a man of capacity, whose abilities were unable, without assistance, to start into day. On the contrary, we know others, whose first appearance has been so favourable, that opinion has marked them for distinction, and they have done little more in succeeding life, than maintain that progress towards celebrity, which was then so happily commenced. The talents of a lawyer are not confined to the knowledge of his profession: this is necessary, but it is not all. The most critical acquaintance with black letter books, Bracton and Fleta, or Lyttleton and Coke, unless accompanied by manifest zeal for the interest of a client, industry to overcome obstacles, and ingenuity to combine all advantages and defeat all opposition, will affect but little at the bar. It is curious to observe by what different methods counsel effect to obtain celebrity. Some by adopting a persuasive manner unlock the heart of a witness, and by a gentleness of tone soothe information out of him, which otherwise would have been withheld; others by bluster, terror, and storm, think they induce the most stubborn to bend, and that by these means they obtain their wishes, where less decisive efforts would have failed. The character which we are now to consider, has uniformly been reckoned among those of the latter description.

Edward Lord Thurlow, was son of a respectable clergyman at Ashfield, in Suffolk, from which place he afterwards took his title. Narrow circumstances prevented his father from bestowing on his education all the attention he could have wished. He did, however, all in his power, and foresaw that his son Edward would "fight his way in the world." With this intention he was sent to Cambridge, where his studies were preparatory to his pursuit of the law as a profession. He was in person large and robust; of a strong mind, retentive memory, vehement passions, and so much addicted in early life to pleasure, the bottle, and gallantry, that only those who knew him intimately, could calculate on his real powers. He would lounge away hour after hour and day after day at Nando's coffee-house, apparently without reflection; but we believe we are correct in stating, that he laboured *nightly* in the study of his profession, while he seemed to procure his knowledge nobody knew how: in truth, the labour it cost him was excessive. The cause which ascertained Mr. Thurlow's future rank, was the famous Douglas cause, in which he had occasion for all his firmness, diligence, and activity; and we have been repeatedly informed, that the *necessity* of exertion on this occasion was the making of Thurlow. It will be recollected, that the counsel were the most eminent of the English bar; and not to be unequal to Yorke, Wedderburn, Dunning, &c. required every attention, and the whole mind of our rising lawyer. Emulation, then, not to call it rivalship, stimulated Thurlow, who, had he had less conspicuous coadjutors, or adversaries, would have been content with less distinction; but, being determined to equal others, he in fact surpassed himself. It was understood that he was the marked opponent of Wedderburn; and that he was never better pleased than when retained on the contrary side. Mr. Thurlow was made King's Counsel in 1762, Solicitor General in 1770, and Attorney General in 1771. The feeble administration of which Lord North was the head, required some partizans capable, by their effrontery, of opposing the Opposition; and two they certainly boasted; Mr. Dundas, afterwards Lord Melville; and Thurlow. These would speak for Ministry, when Ministry would not speak for themselves; and when wit or argument had struck others dumb with dismay, these continued to harangue undismayed. In 1778, he arrived at the highest honours of his profession, being created a peer, by the title of Lord Thurlow of Ashfield in Suffolk; and Lord High Chancellor of England. It was shrewdly suspected that he did not always in his heart, or in the Cabinet, approve of every step taken by the languid statesmen, which then managed our affairs: and some have thought, that he retailed the reasonings of others, though in his own manner: yet distinguished by sufficient marks of *restiveness*, from the genuine emanations of his own mind. He did what he did, rather because he could not do better,

than because he was convinced that this was the very best that ought to be done. On the admission of Mr. Pitt to power, Lord Thurlow was understood to be consulted by him almost in the character of tutor; but the youth, who, unfledged financier as he was, burst away from the toils of the Marquis of Lansdowne, was not likely to be long under tutorage. At length they openly differed: Lord Thurlow had unwarily promised to Mr. Pitt, the next presentation of the Mastership of the Rolls: but when Pepper Arden was named to be that Master, he endeavoured all in his power to thwart the appointment, and finding it impossible, his ill-humour manifested itself more and more, till at length a separation ensued. His Lordship retired to private life in 1792, and gradually declining in strength as age advanced, he died at Brighton, on Friday September 13, 1806, aged 71.

The public life of Lord Thurlow divides into the lawyer and the statesman: but his personal character predominates in both. When pleading in the Douglas cause, he gave so much offence to Mr. Andrew Stuart, a gentleman of high talents and honour, and a principal agent for the Duke of Hamilton, (Thurlow was for his opponent, Douglas) that Mr. Stuart thought proper to call him to account. Thurlow vindicated his conduct as being merely professional, on which, report says, Mr. Stuart asked whether calling him "scoundrel" would tempt him to wave professional protection? The answer being in the affirmative, the offence was given, and a hostile interview took place, but without serious consequences. Many were his allusions to his adversary in the continuation of the trial, not all of which did him honour.

The most popular period of his life was during the debates on the Regency. In this turbulent and critical period, when stiffness and inflexibility were virtues of the very first order, Lord Thurlow, who possessed these virtues in their highest degree, was precisely what his situation required. He was the very Ajax of his party, and retired, as did that sullen Greek,

Ὡς δ' ὅτ' ὄνος παρ' ἄρουραν ἰὼν ἐξίησατο παῖδας
Νωθὴς ὦ δὴ πολλὰ περὶ ῥόπαλ' ἀμφὶς ἐάγη,
Κειρει τ' εἰσελθὼν βαθὺ λήϊον οἱ δέ τε παῖδες
Τύπτουσιν ῥοπάλοισι βίη δέ τι νηπίη αὐτῶν
Σπουδῇ τ' ἐξήλασσαν ἐπεί τ' ἐκορέσσατο φορβῆς.

but returned again to the charge, and distinguished himself by his famous exclamation concerning his Majesty, "When I forget my King, may God forget me!" Detraction, however, has said, that he had that very morning received a private hint of the more than probability that his Majesty would recover. We know that detraction never restrains herself to truth, and we have no reason to infer, that, on this occasion, she departed from her general character.

But there is one event in his life which detraction never dared to impeach; we mean his extremely handsome attention to Dr. Johnson, who, wishing to travel abroad for his health, had applied for an addition to his pension. The reasons which induced a refusal, have no claim to a place in this article; but it was greatly to Lord Thurlow's honour that he softened the denial all in his power. The following is one of his letters on this occasion:—

"To James Boswell, Esq.

"Sir, I should have answered your letter immediately, if (being much engaged when I received it) I had not put it in my pocket, and forgot to open it till this morning.

"I am much obliged to you for the suggestion; and I will adopt and press it as far as I can. The best argument, I am sure, and I hope it is not likely to fail, is Dr. Johnson's merit.—But it will be necessary, if I should be so unfortunate as to miss seeing you, to converse with Sir Joshua on the sum it will be proper to ask—in short, upon the means of setting him out. It would be a reflection on us all, if such a man should perish for want of the means to take care of his health. Your's, &c.——Thurlow."

Johnson wished for £600, i. e. the doubling of his pension for one year, for which sum Lord Thurlow gave Johnson leave to draw on his banker; taking the nominal security of his pension.

His Lordship never was married; but, while a lounger at Nando's, formed a connection with the bar-maid, whom he took from that station to his own house. Report speaks favourably of her conduct. He had several daughters by her; but during his chancellorship, his title was secured to the heirs of his brother who died Bishop of Durham. Accordingly it is now inherited by his nephew.

We must also report to his praise that he never suffered his private attachment to interfere with his public duties. A person in the law, who held a certain post under his Lordship, applied, through his Lordship's housekeeper, for an office of superior importance, but was severely repulsed, and punished by ejection from the office he held; with many threats of vengeance to the uttermost on whoever applied *indirectly* for favours. This illicit connection subjected his Lordship to a libel, which he dared not controvert, and in which the modest defence of fornication "*de bene esse*," put into his mouth, was thought to be a passable instance of ridicule.

Lord Thurlow had accustomed himself so strongly to a vulgar habit of profane swearing, that he was scarcely able to suspend it. If

he did not swear in the House of Lords, while Chancellor, he swore on the stairs and in the lobby: if he did not swear while at church, he could hardly restrain himself in the porch: and this mental cacoethes was so inveterate, that his brother, the bishop, at length relinquished all hopes of a cure. His Lordship was also libelled for this bad habit in the Probationary Odes; as whoever has read them cannot fail of recollecting.

As a Chancellor, we believe, that Lord Thurlow's decrees gave as much satisfaction a can g nerally be expected: he was indeed, not a novici te in the composition of decrees before he ascended the bench, if rumour may be credited; and an allusion which fell from him in answer to Lord Bathurst, occasioned by his project on the subject of tythes, gave countenance to this insinuation. Whether the time he took "to consider," always met with the approbation of the parties to a suit, we are not able to affirm.

There are no qualities of the mind but may be useful in their proper places; and in certain conjunctions of circumstances, they may be extremely important: there are no minds so elevated but they may be degraded by bad habits. These principles are not only founded in nature, but are justified by the instance before us. We should be glad that his successors might consider some things in Lord Thurlow as exemplary; others we heartily wish them skill, virtue, and perseverance, to avoid.

CONSIDERATIONS ON THE CHARACTER OF MR. FOX.

(See pages 215 and 216.)

THAT mingled good and evil which pervades all the principles and events of this world, confounds the reasonings of the most considerate and perplexes the desires of the most sagacious. The dull monotony of common-place sensations, which indicates rather the absence of want of feeling, than the lively activity of vigorous sentiment, may wear away life with little occasion of self-reproach, but with still less of self gratulation: it is like the relaxed wire of an instrument, which though struck by a master's hand, and though it may be seen to vibrate, yields no perceptible note: it is like the stagnant pond whose waters however impelled preserve their dead level, and having no outlet indicate no tendency but that of regaining their equilibrium in the shortest time possible. Who wishes to resemble such characters?

But the opposite extreme has disadvantages equally dangerous. A mind easily agitated, a rapid and lively conception, a creative fancy, a vigorous intellect, an extensive comprehension of objects, a just appreciation of their excellencies; whatever constitutes genius, whatever manifests taste, whether it dazzle in the blaze of elocution, or astonish in the thunder of rhetoric, alas, it is accompanied by passions so violent, and propensities so overbearing, that like a wire over stretched, the slightest vibration snaps it: like a cataract, it rushes with accumulating velocity adown that precipice whence it falls into the fathomless gulph below.

The province of education is, to correct the imperfections of nature, to impart a modest confidence to the timid, by a conviction of competent ability: but to check the sallies of the vehement, and to restrain the advances of the forward: to prevent passion from getting the start of reason, and to gain time for attention to the gentle admonitions of prudence. It is the placid Minerva, who decends from heaven to restrain the violent Achilles;

> While half unsheath'd appears the glittering blade;
> She whispers soft, his vengeance to controul,
> And calm the rising tempest of his soul.

What then is the situation of that youth who deriving from nature intellectual powers of no ordinary description, with all that eagerness of temper which accompanies them, has never been benefitted by the soothing lessons of education, but inflamed by parental indulgence; never taught to pause, and by pausing to detect and abandon error, but impelled by native impetuosity, and flattering himself that all is well, he boldly perseveres till the brink of the precipice sinks beneath his feet,

> And when he falls, he falls like Lucifer,
> Never to hope again.

The errors of genius are notorious as well as lamentable, and ever will the superficial inspector wish, and repeat his wishes, for a combination of the virtues attendant on mental powers of the first order——without their vices. IT IS OTHERWISE ORDAINED: various causes may promote one and restrain the other, but an entire separation is not to be expected, till

> Earth repossesses what to man she gave,
> And the free spirit mounts on wings of fire.

Charles James Fox was the second son of Henry Fox, afterwards Lord Holland. He was born Jan. 13, O. S., 1749. His father early discovered in him striking tokens of genius and abilities, and being himself in office, his son was gradually initiated into the management of business, and saw at least the routine of it, in his boyish days. There are not wanting those who affirm that he read his father's dispatches, at the same period as he amused himself with spinning his top; and that, on one occasion, after having perused a very long letter written with Lord Holland's own hand, he discovered his opinion of its contents by committing it to the fire!—His father, who never contra-

dicted him, and possibly too was sensible of the justness of the verdict, patiently wrote another. Lord Holland was esteemed a sagacious character; but, of what advantage was parental sagacity, if it never controuled the excentricities of those to whom its admonitions were due? Tutors and governors indeed were called into attendance, but self-government was an accomplishment which young Fox never learned. Whatever could be purchased from hirelings was purchased: but how small a proportion of the complete gentleman can hireling instruction communicate?

The temper of Charles was forward, predominant, vehement; at the same time it was open, candid, and manly. He was thought qualified to take the lead, and the lead he readily took. His opinion was expected, and he frankly gave his opinion. All were supposed to notice him, and he dashed into notice, *ex animo*. He was educated at Westminster and at Eton, where he obtained distinction: his studies were not severe: his happy genius, and retentive memory, enabled him to acquire advantages for which others are beholden to labour. From Eton he went to Oxford, where his stay was not long: from whence, his father, impatient to behold him a man of consequence, sent him over Europe, to make what was called the Grand Tour. There can be no doubt, but many advantages attended that rational intercourse with continental courts, and foreign statesmen, which was offered by the Grand Tour. It afforded many opportunities of observation, it admitted those who were capable of profiting by the privilege to an insight into the characters of men, and they were usually men of ability, whose manner of discharging the duties of their important employments, was well calculated to impress and improve the youthful mind. But it also afforded opportunities of the most flagrant licentiousness, and being performed at that period of life, when the blood boils in the veins of youth: it became the means by which many thoughtless English heirs were ruined in body, mind, and outward estate. Among this number was Charles Fox, who had disencumbered himself of his patrimony before he had attained the age of manhood. Precocious in every thing, a fribble to excess in dress, and appearance, an adventurer without reserve, at dice and cards; always a leader, and usually a loser too. The last bill drawn on Lord Holland, by his sons, was from Naples, for a debt of honour, value £36,000. Nor could they stir till this was paid.

Returned to England, Mr. Fox was, when under twenty one years of age, admitted into the House of Commons, as representative for the borough of Midhurst. The expectations formed from his talents caused this irregularity to be overlooked; and thus was he placed in the very post of honour, in the very pathway of ambition. At a time of life when others are supposed to have acquired barely wisdom enough to govern themselves, he was understood to possess sufficient to govern the nation. And he meant that his governing spirit should be known: unused to meet rebuffs, he thundered at those who opposed him, stood forward as the champion of Ministry, vindicated the famous election of Col. Luttrel for Middlesex, and derided Johnny Wilkes and his partizans, with all the powers of lungs, laughter, and eloquence. Never will the excess in which he indulged himself, never will the appellation "scum of the earth," which he liberally bestowed on the Freeholders of Middlesex, be forgotten. In return, he was told, that the *scum* would ever be uppermost, that the "Young Cub," was not yet Old Reynard, and that French Taylors never made English Statesmen. His family interest, and his personal talents, procured him a seat at the board of Admiralty; he was here a junior, but being denied the influence of a senior, he resigned in disgust: he was a second time appointed, but was now removed to the Treasury, where he differed in opinion with the Premier, and was dismissed. He could not preside, and he would not submit, but being restive his name was *omitted*, in Lord North's phrase, from a new commission for managing that department of state. He was now about 25 years of age: extremely corpulent in person: notorious for his amours, addicted to the extremes of what was called fashion; and he even disgraced the honest plainness of the English character by the coxcombry of wearing *red* heels to his shoes, with every other mark of the *petit maître*.

Bien poudré, bien fraisé, tout à fait un Marquis!

His time was devoted to the gaming-table; he played at the clubs, till credit was banished, and *ready money* was enacted to be *indispensible*. His connections were extensive among the money-lending jews; and when the old arts of obtaining were exhausted, his ingenuity in devising new, was the admiration of his associates. Ever forward, the leader, the head, the precursor of his companions, he was distinguished no less by the intrepidity of his career, than by the superiority of his intellect.

But the superiority of his intellect did not always secure Mr. Fox from being a dupe to the arts of others; report attached to him the incident of having designed to repair his ruined fortunes, by marriage with a West-Indian lady of immense value! pointed out to him by a kind lady-guardian, but unluckily, *not visible to day*! His benevolent introductress hoped for better fortune on the morrow; on the morrow he was again at his post, "to-morrow and to-morrow, and to-morrow,"

but, an unwelcome inflammation in the eyes! rendered an interview impossible. This delusion was at length dissipated by the officers of justice recognizing an old acquaintance in the lady who *was* visible, and who, it afterwards appeared, under the sanction of intimacy among the nobility, "witness a certain chariot which might be seen in attendance, day after day for hours together, at her residence," had advertised "Places at Court, to be disposed of." A scene in a comedy of Foote's commemorates this incident.

Being dismissed from the treasury, Mr. Fox entered the lists of opposition; and here he soon was leader. His talents were of the first order in debate; he excelled every speaker in discovering the weaknesses of his antagonist's arguments. He could set the minister's propositions in so many different lights, gradually deprive them of what reasonings they might justly claim: supply them with supposititious arguments, confute these, and so thoroughly embarrass the whole, that the minister could scarcely recognize his own offspring, swaddled as it was in the envelopes with which Mr. Fox had disguised it. It was now that among the opponents of the American war, Mr. Fox acquired popularity; and he deserved it, if unwearied efforts, unlimited vehemence of debate, and a manly soundness of judgment, could deserve it; but he passed many years in attack before the fortress of government submitted to the besiegers. Lord North was, certainly, not the minister required by the times in which it was his lot to conduct the state: yet the violence of Mr. Fox rendered it unsafe for Lord North to resign, and he held his situation, not so much to despite his antagonist as to secure himself. But the defences of ministry were gradually weakened, till at length the opposition became the stronger party, and the leaders of the *outs* burst into the Cabinet. Mr. Fox was now appointed Secretary of State, and found the advantage of an early acquaintance with business: he conducted the affairs of his office with dignity and dispatch. The death of the Marquis of Rockingham was a mean of dissolving this ministry, and the reins of government were committed to Lord Shelburne, afterwards Marquis of Lansdowne. Mr. Fox went out; but quickly forming the famous coalition with Lord North, whose principles he had formerly reprobated without modesty or reservation, and whose head he had repeatedly threatened in the most opprobrious terms, he again rose to power. But the spirit of the British nation was offended; this union of parties, formerly so embittered against each other, was thought to be unnatural; and the opinion, or rather, the feeling of the people abhorred the connection. Sensible that he was not now the man of the people, neither was he truly the man of the King, he meditated a continuation in power independent of both people and king, and such, it is probable, would have been the issue had his famous India bill become a law: the additional patronage which that included, would have been the impregnable bulwark of his permanence. We pretend not to know in what light he described this bill to his Mjaesty; but it is certain that other of his Majesty's friends described it very differently, and the bill was stifled in the House of Lords in a manner entirely unusual. In the event, the King threw himself on his people, his people supported their king; and the parliament, then governed by Mr. Fox, was almost wholly renovated. Mr. Fox and his fellow ministers having resigned of course, he resumed his station at the head of the opposition. Here he did many essential services to his country; some propositions he caused to be new modified: some few he happily set aside, and many a hint which induced caution, if nothing more, did Mr. Pitt receive from his acute discrimination. On the question of the regency, the opinion of the public was with Mr. Pitt: and the doctrines of Mr. Fox were not popular in the nation. Mr. Fox varied them once or twice, by which he lost time; and never was any man more completely a dupe to his own artifice, than he was in proposing a re-examination of the Royal Patient by the consulting physicians. The loss of this opportunity was the loss of the whole object: time was gained; the Royal Patient recovered, to the infinite joy of his subjects, whose steady conduct during the painful interval ought never to be mentioned without applause, and to the disappointment, so far as their admission to power was in question, of Mr. Fox and his friends who had indulged expectations.

Mr. Fox displayed his good opinion of the French revolution without reserve, in its earliest stages: he even ventured to predict glorious events as arising from it: but events discredited his predictions, and there can be no doubt that he felt much regret at the character which that sanguinary convulsion afterwards assumed. His quarrel with Mr. Burke, in consequence of his separation from that political father, must, unquestionably have been painful: for Mr. Fox, though ambitious, had not suffered ambition to destroy the sentiments of friendship. Mr. B. maintained a hauteur which affected a superiority over his friend, and effectually precluded their reconciliation. Mr. Fox, took occasion after a long contest with Mr. Pitt, as he said, fruitlessly, to secede from his place in the House: this step has been loudly blamed: certainly it shewed that he thought little of the importance attached to a member of the *Wittenagemote* of the country, wherein no

individual can tell what importance may arise out of his advice and opinion. But this secession was precisely in character for a man who affected the power of a Dictator, and because he could not dictate would not condescend to advise. Whether Mr. Fox might have come into office when Mr. Pitt went out, and the present Lord Sidmouth became minister, or at *any time since*, we cannot affirm. Perhaps the terms that were offered were unfit for his acceptance: perhaps he could not consistently with his veracity and honour accept them; be that as it might, his way to power was not clear till death had deprived the country of Mr. Pitt's services: when the Prince of Wales in recommending a ministerial arrangement, included Mr. Fox. He held the place of Secretary of State for a few months, and was barely settled in office when he died.

In estimating the character of a minister, the good he has done must guide our opinion, but the character of an oppositionist must be estimated by the evil he has prevented: always provided that the measures pursued to effect that prevention be legal and commendable. How far this proviso applies to the mission of Mr. Adair into Russia for the purpose of counteracting Mr. Pitt's negociations there, we cannot tell. The whole of the facts in that case are not before the public. We have already stated that the advantages which the nation in a domestic point of view derived from the opposition of Mr. Fox, were considerable; and the liberal principles which he professed in religion, in trade, &c. procured him many adherents. Nor was he destitute of friends; and when his circumstances were reduced beyond recovery, a number of these effected an unsaleable annuity on his life, which rendered his latter days comfortable.

Mr. Fox was allied by birth, or by connection, with many of our noblest families: but his character was formed by himself, and by circumstances. His father had been an opponent of William Pitt, afterwards Lord Chatham, and this opposition descended to their sons.

Each of the fathers, too, had trained up his son with unlimited attention and expense, had infused the principles of ambition in their strongest forms into his youthful mind, had prepared him for the high station he was expected to occupy, and thus neither could bear a rival. *Aut Cæsar aut nullus* was the motto which each might have adopted;—but Mr. Fox was not destined to be Cæsar.

Had Lord Holland been a popular character, instead of being branded and petitioned against as a "public defaulter;" had his son been introduced much later into public life, had he tempered his vivacity by sober reflection, instead of heating his blood by liquors, and his mind by the chances of the dice; had he taken his due station at first, instead of insisting on guiding affairs before he was well acquainted with them, and had he waited till experience had qualified him in the eyes of others as well as in his own, Mr. Fox MUST have been the first man in the state, and probably would have shone in the pages of our history, with a steady illumination of glory, not unequal to that of our most honoured statesmen.

Those talents would have been developed in the man, which could only be budding in the youth: and who was bound to submit to embrio-abilities? If ever there was a character thrown away in early life, by being prematurely urged into publicity, Charles Fox was that character t if ever the most valuable gifts of nature were rendered unavailing by notorious dissipation, and want of morals, they were those bestowed on Charles Fox: if ever any ambition was constantly deluded by hope, but hope evanescent and fleeting, it was the ambition of this eminent statesman: he was permitted to touch authority, but not to grasp it: he wore it for an instant, but could not call it his own; and when, apparently, he might have continued to enjoy it, he was seated in office, not to give importance to his life, but dignity to his death: his friends were called to lament his loss, while his country, looking wistfully around for the services he had performed, rested her hopes on those which she gave him credit for the ability of performing.

POETRY.

RETROSPECTION AND RECOLLECTION:

By Henry Francis Greville, Esq.

RETROSPECTION.

Gone by is the time when the sun's closing light
Witnessed childhood still eager on frolic and play;
And 'ere Morning's beam had saluted the sight,
Forsaking repose to retrace pleasure's way.
Gone by is the time, when, no more pleased with toys,
Manhood soared on the pinions of fancy and hope;
Expectation still pointing to unpossessed joys,
And confidence scorning with wisdom to cope.
And ah! too, gone by is the exquisite grief
Which invaded my bosom as truth met my view,
When first *undeceived*, I renounced the belief
That love was ne'er faithless, or friendship untrue.
But what still remains, and will never go by,
Even though winter's frost pours her ice in my veins,
Is the feeling which constantly moistens my eye,
As I turn with disgust from humanity's pains.

As I view in repentance shame's feverish glow,
As I hear ineffectual labour repine,
As I see talent silently nourish its woe,
And mis'ry, despairing, its last hope resign;
This ne'er will go by; no, this ne'er will decay;
This feeling God gave when he first gave me breath:
And when time shall make other sensations its prey,
This shall cheer, though it hasten my passage to death.

RECOLLECTION.—TO LUCY.

Dear Lucy, unthinking improvident maid,
Whither tends this delirium that leads us astray?
Is thus fond indulgence on thy part repaid?
And on mine—am I pleasing thee, but to betray?
Not thee do I blame; trifling, idle, and vain,
My experience I placed 'gainst thine innocent youth;
To Passion's wild wish gave an unbridled rein,
And stole on the treasure allotted to truth.
The rose of thy morn blooms now fragrant and fair!
Shall I tear and scatter its leaves to the gale,
Or tenderly watch o'er the floweret with care,
And bid it still bloom, and embellish the vale?
Thou can'st never be mine:—shall I blemish thy name,
And snatch fleeting rapture unsanctioned and base,
Unfeeling consign thee to sorrow and shame,
And leave to thine age guilty days to retrace?
To thine age—when, alas! on thy couch thou shalt lie,
Pain and sickness embittering life's final close!
Shall *I* through remembrance give birth to the sigh,
Which will rob of repentance its look'd-for repose?
No, never: still pure, still reproachless remain;
Be thy youth and thine age from remorse ever free:
Be thy blush of sweet innocence still without stain;
And be still priz'd by others, as well as by me.

THE MAMMOTH.

Soon as the deluge ceas'd to pour
The flood of death from shore to shore,
And verdure smil'd again;
Hatch'd amidst elemental strife,
I sought the upper realms of life,
The tyrant of the plain.
On India's shores my dwelling lay;
Gigantic, as I roam'd for prey,
All nature took to flight!
At my approach the lofty woods
Submissive bow'd, the trembling floods
Drew backward with affright.
Creation felt a general shock;
The screaming Eagle sought the rock,
The Elephant was slain;
Affrighted, Men to caves retreat,
Tygers and Leopards lick'd my feet,
And own'd my lordly reign.

Thus many moons my course I ran,
The general foe of beast and man,
Till on one fatal day,
The lion led the bestial train,
And I, alas! was quickly slain,
As gorg'd with food I lay.

With lightning's speed the rumour spread,
"Rejoice! Rejoice! the Mammoth's dead,"
Resounds from shore to shore.
Pomona, Ceres, thrive again,
And laughing join the choral strain,
"The Mammoth is no more."

In earth's deep caverns long immur'd,
My skeleton from view secur'd,
In dull oblivion lay;
Till late, with industry and toil,
A youth subdu'd the stubborn soil,
And dragg'd me forth to day.

In London late my form was shown,
And while the crowd o'er every bone
Inclin'd the curious head;
In wonder lost my form they ey'd,
And pleas'd in fancied safety cried,
"Thank Heav'n, the monster's dead

O mortals, blind to future ill,
My race yet lives, it prospers still:
Nay, start not with surprise:
Behold, from Corsica's small isle,
Twin-born in cruelty and guile,
A second Mammoth rise!

He seeks, on fortune's billows born,
A land by revolution torn,
A prey to civil hate;
And, seizing on a lucky time,
Of Gallic frenzy, Gallic crime,
Assumes the regal state.

Batavian freedom floats in air,
The patriot Swiss, in deep despair,
Deserts his native land!
While haughty Spain her monarch sees
Submissive wait, on bended knees,
The tyrant's dread command.

All Europe o'er the giant stalks;
Whole nations tremble as he walks,
But see! to check his sway,
Again appears the Northern Bear.
The Prussian Eagle soars in air,
And pounces on her prey.

Yet, ah! a storm begins to low'r;
Satiate with cruelty and pow'r,
At ease the monster lies:
Lion of Britain, led by you,
If Europe's sons the fight renew,
A second Mammoth dies.

J.

OBSERVANDA EXTERNA.

AMERICA.

Literature in Louisiana.

Since Louisiana is become a part of the United States, two literary Societies have been formed there; one at New-Orleans, which publishes monthly a journal intended to render the country better known; the other at Natches, on the river Mississippi.

DENMARK.

Travels in Greenland.

Counsellor Gieseke of Copenhagen, has obtained leave from the King of Denmark to make a geographical and mineralogical journey in Greenland.

Ingenuity in Gaol.

A native of Liege, called Beaumont, endowed with a particular inventive genius, died lately in the gaol of Copenhagen, where he had been confined for having abused his abilities, by counterfeiting bank notes. While in prison, with the assistance of government and money supplied by a Dane, a man of wealth, he had succeeded in making straw-paper, which is equal in polish and solidity to any paper known. He had also imagined for the paper currency a water-mark, which could not be imitated. His inventions are sure of surviving their author. His partner will continue manufacturing the straw-paper according to his new process; and his widow has been invited to Vienna, where she will receive a liberal premium for the secret of the water-mark. She has likewise inherited three or four other secrets which she intends selling in various parts of Europe.

FRANCE.

Galvanic Barometer.

By means of the successful combination of the électromètre with gold leaves, and that with screws, Mr. Marechaux has contrived an instrument well calculated to indicate the smallest quantities of electricity and of galvanism. Professor Veau de Launai is of opinion, that the observations made with this instrument are more exact than those made with the barometer to foretel rain, and in general the variations in the state of the atmosphere.

Galvanism.

The pile of Volta has been considered in another light, and experienced modifications in its construction. Mr. Marechaux has formed a new pile with new plates of tin and brass, separated by little dry scraps of blotting paper. Silk twist is placed instead of the glass tubes of the common apparatus, by which the pile is suspended on a hook. This pile, thus constructed, gives very sensible effect to the electro-micrometer of the same auhot. Mr. Marechaux thinks that with the aid of this apparatus he has been able to observe that the electric tension of the pile increases and decreases in ratio of the electric state of the air, and that the force of its action increases in proportion as the atmosphere is surcharged with vapour.

A new apparatus, designed under the name of the galvanic chain, has been constructed by Mr. Struve. This chain is composed of several double cones, one being of brass, the other of zinc, sodered together at their basis. At the point of each of these cones is annexed a ring which serves to combine a less or greater quantity of those double cones. Between the latter are placed cotton and pieces of linen, in such a manner that the extremities are in contact with the brass and the zinc. This chain thus disposed and moistened with muriat of soda, produces an immediate effect. According to the author it is less oxidable than the common apparatus, and the activity of it is treble.

Portraits of learned men at Grenoble.

The Society of Sciences at Grenoble, have resolved to procure pictures of all the distinguished characters in the department of Isère, and to place these portraits in their assembly room.

Hurricanes, how caused.

A phænomenon has occurred this year which conduces to the explanation of hurricanes. On the 4th of July was experienced at Bellfort, one of those extraordinary hurricanes so rare in Europe, which overthrow trees, and sweep away the roofs of houses. Hitherto, I had thought it impossible to discover the cause, but in my journey to Lyons an idea came across my mind, which may be confirmed. The notes of Mr. Molet, a learned professor of natural history, recorded a thunder storm, at Lyons, on the same day. As I passed through Sens, I saw Mr. Soulas, who told me that the wind had shifted from north to south. The newspapers informed us, that on the same day there was a violent storm in London. It strikes me, then, that a mass of electric clouds of 100 miles or more in extent, the detonation of which caused an immense vacuity, may have forced the air to fill up the chasm so occasioned, with extraordinary violence. I was confirmed in this conjecture, Jan. 11, 1806. Extraordinary thunder storms at Brest, Rouen, Chartres, and Ypres, occasioned storms and hurricanes that have blown down chimneys; also at Nancy, Besançon, Bourdeaux, and Dijon. Peals of thunder are very uncommon in that season of the year; but the south wind had made the temperature warm; the air was extremely humid, the clouds were low enough to draw sparks from the earth on a space of 50 or 60 miles. There have even been earthquakes.

The hurricanes of the Isle de France and of the West Indies, being much more violent, must suggest the idea of stormy masses

of greater extent, to which may be added whirlpools and eruptions under water.

Mission to China.

M. Portalis, minister for public worship, desirous of sending missionaries* to China, has concerted his plan with M. Brunet, the superior of Saint-Lazare. They hope to set off this year; and a skilful astronomer is already preparing his instruments. The manuscripts relative to China, which M. Berlin had collected, are in the possession of one of his secretaries, who offers to sell them to government. M. Billien and M. Alarie of the foreign missions have already been in China, and understand the language of the country, so that all hopes are not lost of that branch of learning being brought into favour again in France.

History of Physic.

It is known that *L'Histoire de la Médicine*, by Le Clerc, was not printed in France. It is become very scarce, and is only to be found in a few libraries: on account of its importance, we regret it is not more public. M. Amoureux, desirous of doing service to young practitioners, is preparing a new edition, which will be embellished with such remarks and plates, as will make it in some measure classical. He likewise intends publishing in continuation of that work, a new edition of Freind's History of Physic, with plates, and observations, appropriate to the present times.

Notice on the existence of phosphate of magnesia in bones.

M. Fourcroy observes, as extremely singular, that this salt which is yielded by the bones of animals, does not exist in those of the human species; whereas it exists in human urine; but not in that of the brute creation. It proceeds from the nature of their aliments, such as vetches, oats, and corn in general.

Spider tamed.

The Abbé d'Olivet, author of the *Life of Pelisson*, inserted in the *History of the French Academy*, has taken care not to forget a passage, the translation of which we hope will be acceptable to our readers.

"Confined at that time in a solitary place, "where the light of day only penetrated "through a mere slit, having no other ser- "vant and companion than a stupid and dull "clown, a basque, who was continually "playing on the bag-pipes,—Pelisson stu- "died by what means to secure himself "against an enemy, which a good conscience "alone cannot always repel; I mean the "attacks of unemployed imagination, which, "when once it exceeds proper limits be- "comes the most cruel torture of a recluse "individual. He adopted the following "stratagem. Perceiving a spider spinning "her web at the spiracle mentioned above: "he undertook to tame her, and to effect this "he placed some flies on the edge of the "opening, while the basque was playing on "his favourite bag-pipe. The spider by de- "grees accustomed herself to distinguish the "sound of that instrument, and to run from "her hole to seize her prey: thus, by means "of always calling her out with the same "tune, and placing the flies nearer and near- "er his own seat, after several months ex- "ercise, he succeeded in training the spider "so well, that she would start at the first "signal, to seize a fly at the farthest end of "the room, and even on the knees of the "prisoner."

We have heard of a prisoner confined in the Bastile, who retained his senses, contrary to expectation, by playing daily so many games at push-pin, he having unknown to his keepers, secreted a battalion or two of these hostile implements. The device of M. P. is more interesting to us, as we learn from it, that the spider, though among the most quarrelsome of insects, yet is capable of being rendered familiar by the reason and perseverance of man.

GERMANY.

Grecian Theatricals restored.

On a private theatre of Leipsick, a pretty successful attempt has lately been made to imitate the manner in which the Greeks performed their tragedies. The piece chosen was the *Polyidos*, a subject which no one had ever presumed to introduce on the stage, although it had appeared in print. The *Polyidos* is a tolerably good imitation of the composition of the ancient Greek tragedies. It contains chorusses in anapæstic verse, the dialogue is written in iambics. The author, after the example of Sophocles, whom he seems to have taken for his model, superintended the representation himself, and performed the principal character. The chorus being that part of the tragic drama of antiquity which is least known to the moderns, the greatest attention was directed to its execution. The actors had sixteen rehearsals. The performance obtained (we are told) universal approbation, even from those spectators who were the least favourably disposed. The regular pacings of the chorus were no less scrupulously attended to; the steps either forward, or backward, were a constant imitation of the movements indicated by the strophe and antistrophe. These novelties, altogether, occasioned as much entertainment as surprize. The amateurs of Leipsick do not intend to stop here; they propose getting up other tragedies of the same kind, which the author of Po-

* Missionaries of religious character and political principles united most likely; a mere pretext to propagate the revolutionary doctrine, and to revive French influence at Pekin.

lyidos and other literary men have promised to write: they mean to improve their gestures, and to perform in the open field on a stage erected in Woerlitz park; and if they can succeed better than has hitherto been done, in finding out the musical accompaniment which contributed to the brilliancy of Greek tragedy, they flatter themselves of inviting the public on some future day, to the representation of a genuine Greek drama. Whatever encomia may be bestowed on amateurs for employing their leisure hours in a manner calculated to throw light on this still very obscure part of the literature and arts of antiquity; it would not answer to a company of players, who live upon the money they receive at the door.

State of the Trade in Books.

The booksellers of Germany experience a critical stagnation in their line of business, partly owing to the disorders of the war, and partly to the too great multiplicity of publications during the last years. Fifteen houses appeared *insolvent* at the fair of September, 1805, and it was apprehended that fifty others would come empty-handed at Easter 1806. From the intelligence we have received concerning the publications produced at Easter, the catalogue contained 3,077 articles, among which there were 257 of divinity; 231 of jurisprudence including political economy; 66 of philosophy; 177 on education; 59 on natural history; 88 on mathematics; and 77 on geography and relations of travels.

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The last Michaelmas fair at Leipsick has been less abundant in literary productions than those of the preceding years. The catalogue of new publications, which last year amounted to 1,640, did not exceed 645. This deficiency has been attributed to various causes; such as a short summer, the high price of provisions, and the prevailing custom of the German booksellers and authors to prefer the Easter fair to that of Michaelmas. The Easter fair exhibited upwards of 4,000 new articles, which makes the whole productions of the year, 4,645, whereas in France they only reckon, 1,150, and in England 900. The works contained in the catalogue of the Michaelmas fair, were,

Philosophy and Morality, 31.
Instruction and Education, 79.
Belles Lettres, 29.
The Fine Arts, 15.
Ancient and Modern Languages, 58.
Divinity, Sermons, &c., 88.
Law, 55.
Physic and Surgery, &c., 93.
Mathematical Sciences, 30.
Natural History, &c., 45.
Rural Economy, Gardening, &c., 49.
Domestic Economy, Useful Arts, &c., 50.
Commerce, 11.
Political Economy, 21.
History, 31.
Biography, 19.
Literary History, 8.
Geography and Topography, 28.
Travels, 16.
Statistics, 5.
Periodical Works, 21.
Novels, Anecdotes and Fugitive Pieces, 63.
Almanacks, 61.
Genealogy, and Chronology, 2.
Free Masonry, 4.
For the use of Ladies, 3.

Among the works on Divinity, are 38 prayer books, and collections of sermons.

New Process to whiten Straw.

M. Fisher, of Vienna, has discovered a new process to whiten straw. Instead of covering it with sulphur in the stove, as was practised formerly, he dresses it in muriatic acid saturated with pot-ash. The straw thus prepared never turns yellow, and is of a most shining white; it acquires besides great flexibility.

Monument to the Memory of Kepler.

Among a great number of publications, which daily appear in Ratisbon on German affairs; we have noticed a plan published February 1, 1806, by Count Sternberg, MM. Von Pleffen, Von Rheden, &c. and communicated to all the ministers at the diet; to invite them to concur in the erection of a monument to the memory of the astronomer Kepler, who died, and is buried in Ratisbon. The cost of this monument is estimated at a probable expense of 5000 florins.

Surgery and Midwifery establishment.

The King of Prussia has granted to the university of Halle, a fund of 2,600 crowns for the establishment of an institute of surgery and midwifery. MM. Loder and Froriep, are placed at the head of the establishment.

Astronomical Instruments.

The Emperor of Austria has granted to the observatory of Osen, a sum of 7000 florins to purchase astronomical instruments.

Libraries.

All the libraries belonging to the convents of Augsburgh, have been united to the public town library.

Duke of Saxe-Gotha's Observatory.

The Observatory of Seeberg, near Gotha, erected at the expense of the late Duke, deceased in 1804, and which this prince considered as the only monument which could worthily transmit his name to posterity, has been shut up and abandoned in less than two years after his death.

Greek School in Transylvania.

A school of modern Greek has been established at Cronstart, in Transylvania. It is composed of four and thirty scholars, who

are taught writing, arithmetic, and ancient Greek, by the grammar of Constantinus Lascaris. The professors are Greek monks, from Mount Athos.

HOLLAND.

Literature.

In a periodical work, entitled the *Sincere*, we read an interesting review of the literary productions that have appeared in Holland in the course of 1805. These productions are very numerous if we include translations. Divinity is the subject which has furnished the greatest number of original works. They reckon 113, besides eight journals that treat especially of theological topics: the most singular is a weekly paper, which contains only dissertations on the Bible, and has a considerable number of subscribers.

Four societies are now engaged in literature and poetry, viz. 1, that of *Felix Meritis*; 2, the *Maatschappy*, or Society of Dutch language and Dutch poetry; 3, the Society *Tot Nutt*, or of the public good; and, 4, a *Society of the Lovers of Poetry*.

Physic, and natural history, continue to be cultivated with great zeal in Holland; where many learned men have already acquired extensive fame in those branches. In 1805 no less than 114 works were published treating of those sciences. They make honourable mention of, among other journals, the *Goneeskundig Magazin* (the Magazine of the Art of Healing), and the Memoirs of the Society of Harlem.

The Dutch poets are not endowed with less facility in translating than in composing. Fifty-eight dramas, tragedies, or comedies, are among the new works.

We may judge how far a taste for literature prevails, by the speculation of a company of merchants, in Amsterdam, who have lately established *an office for the arts and sciences*. The founders very properly admit productions from every country; they have it in contemplation to establish a central point, for national and foreign literature; they have a large collection of works in Dutch, French, English, German and Italian. Another singularity of the city of Amsterdam must not pass unnoticed. A company of German Jews, under the French denomination of *Industrie & Récréation*, for one and twenty years have been performing *comic operas* with success; and yet only a single piece is mentioned as having been originally composed for this company, which is entituled *Mardochée, ou les Juifs sauvés*. Even of this the music is selected from several well-known operas. Jews also perform, not altogether unsuccessfully, in the chorusses of the *Opera Buffa*.

Valuable, edible, and exotic Plants.

The Batavian Society of Sciences established at Harlem, has proposed the following questions: the time for answering them is not limited.

"Which are the indigenous plants whose virtues have continued unknown, but which might be of great utility in our dispensary, and replace exotic remedies?"

The memorials are to state not only the virtues and advantages of those indigenous remedies, after authorities from abroad, but also proofs, and observations, originally made in Holland.

"What are the indigenous plants, not yet in use, but which, at a low price, might serve for food; and what nutritive exotic plants, reared in other countries, might be imported and cultivated in this country for the same purpose?"

"What are the indigenous plants in use, which after certain experiments, might furnish good colours, and the preparation and use of which might be introduced to advantage? what exotic plants might be cultivated in the less fertile lands of the republic, and furnish colours?"

Port of Amsterdam.

Considering the actual state of the *Ye* through the whole extent of the city of Amsterdam, *i. e.* behind what is called the *Laag*, along the Groote Waal, Hannekes-Broenwaal, the wet docks of the State, and those of the East-India Company; likewise along the whole bason, at the south of the exterior piles, there is not only a considerable accumulation of mud, but the *Ye* seems to be threatened with being choaked up, insomuch, that in order to prevent the navigation from being interrupted, it is requisite to remove the mud by very costly mechanical means, such as mills, and by employing a great number of labourers. As this accumulation of mud increases instead of lessening since 1778, when heads were made at the east and west of Niewendam, and the ancient quay was re-established along the Zickenwater, it is inquired,

"To what causes must this accelerated accumulation of mud be ascribed? and by what means could this troublesome and prejudicial accession be removed, or prevented? How would it be possible to prevent the mud from such depositions in the same places after it has been removed?"

The author of the memorial to which the medal will be adjudged, may also expect a reward of at least 10,000 florins, in case the Regency of Amsterdam should decree the execution of his plan, and the experience of ten years demonstrate the success of it answerably to the expectation of the donors. Should the successful author die during the interval, his heirs will be entitled to the above reward.

ICELAND.

New City.

The government of Denmark has ordered a regular city to be built in Iceland, to be called Reyking; it is situated on the sea coast, and will be a free port. A Latin school has been established there, and is already in a state of great activity.

ITALY.

History of Bells.—Rome.

The Abbé Cancellieri, although ill, is going to publish a work relative to bells, wherein he has inserted a long letter, written by Father Ponyard to M. de Saint-Vincens, on the history of bells and steeples. The Abbé Cancellieri has written this dissertation on the occasion of two bells having been christened, which are to be placed within the tower of the capitol. One of these, of an enormous size, is intended to replace that which was broken in the time of the late Roman Republic. It had been taken from the inhabitants of Viterbo by the Romans, in a battle fought in the sixteenth century. It was called the *Pantezina di Viterbo*, and served to call the magistrates together, or in case of alarm. When this bell was taken, it was customary to carry the bell of the commune with the army, placed on a chariot; where it directed the movements of the troops. It was reckoned an act of uncommon valour to take either the enemy's bell, or the chains belonging to the town gates. The chains of the gates of Viterbo, taken by the Romans in the aforesaid battle, are still fixed to the bow of Saint-Vito, near St. Martin-des-Monts.

Antiquities.—Rome.

The Abbé Fea is going to publish at Rome a new edition of the work of the celebrated French architect Antoine Desgodetz who died in 1728. It is well known to contain the dimensions of the principal ancient monuments, and is become very scarce. The architect Valadier is commissioned by the pontifical chamber to superintend the technical part of the work; and the Abbé Fea is to enrich it with commentaries of great erudition. The better to verify the measures taking by Desgodetz it is intended to take advantage of the late diggings which have been made at Rome, around the ancient monuments, from which are already derived important discoveries, with respect to the Pantheon, and the Coliseum.

This work of Desgodetz has been copied in English by J. Taylor, Holborn.

It is somewhat surprising that, out of the immensity of bricks which are taken away from the Coliseum, in consequence of researches continued with great spirit by the Abbé Guattani, not one bears a single letter, or impression. This observation corroborates that of the late Cardinal Borgia, that the custom of *sigilloting* bricks was not prior to the reign of Adrian.

LAPLAND.

North Cape.

Colonel Skiöeljebrand, who seven years ago undertook a voyage to North Cape, with an Italian named Acerbi, and who published a folio description of that country in French, with plates after his own drawings, has lately published a new edition of this work in one volume 8vo. He has only retained three engravings; namely, a map of the country, which is very little known, from Torneo to North Cape; a View of Torneo by the midnight moon; and a View of North Cape by the midnight sun. This work does not contain the same details, neither is it written in so brilliant a style, as that of Mr. Acerbi, published in three volumes, 4to. in English, 1804; but it is more entitled to credit, Mr. Skiöeljebrand being the principal during the voyage, and having, besides, the advantage over Mr. Acerbi of previous acquaintance with the languages of the different countries they visited.

From the merit of those publications by Colonel Skiöeljebrand which we have inspected, we doubt not but the work mentioned above, is well deserving of public patronage: it has not yet reached us.

RUSSIA.

University of Dorport, in Livonia.

The following account of this university is an extract of a letter from Mr. Pæschumann, professor there, which he has inserted in the literary journal of Halle. When this new university was established, April 23, 1802, its anual revenue was fixed at 56,000 roubles. In the instrument of its foundation, granted by the Emperor, December 12th of that year, this sum was increased to 120,000 roubles; and a general superintendance of the establishments for public instruction in four provinces having soon after been committed to the care of this university, the government assigned to the commission of instruction 0000 roubles per annum, for the travelling expenses of the inspectors of these schools, &c. &c.

It was stated in the first paragraph of the act, that this sum of 126,000 roubles should be drawn from the public treasury, till such time as the university had taken possession of the lands allotted to it. However it has been ascertained, that the produce of those lands had been valued too highly in the act of foundation, so that the nett receipt would have fallen very far short of the expenditure. Thus situated the professors applied for assistance, and have been promised by the government a sufficient extent of cultivated land to realise the annual sum of 126,000 roubles. In order that the professors should not lose their time in collecting this [illegible] a com-

mission was immediately appointed for administering the pecuniary concerns of this Institution, the agents of which are to receive their salary at the public treasury. Government had allowed to the university a sum of 120,000 roubles for construction and repairs of buildings; which was far from being sufficient. The amphitheatre for anatomy, placed on a small eminence, in a pleasant airy situation, surrounded with new plantations, and the library, for which part of the old cathedral church (a very fine monument of architecture of the middle age) was intended, were already finished, and the construction of the main edifice was begun; but unforeseen difficulties required a greater capital, and the Emperor granted an additional sum of 264,000 roubles: so that the total amount for building alone comes to 384,000 roubles, which are to be paid to the administration in the course of three years.

There is every occasion to be satisfied with the success of the arrangements of the schools in the four provinces under the direction of the university, namely, Livonia, Courland, Fionia, and Esthonia. Attention has hitherto been chiefly directed towards organizing the gymnasia, and schools of the district. These two kinds of establishment are especially destined for the instruction of youths intended for commerce, the arts, or trade, and as preparatory schools for those who are subsequently to pursue the study of literature. The parochial schools, where the first elements of education are taught, begin also to be organized. Every town, however small, will contain two of these schools, one for children of each sex, to be supported by the funds of the establishment for public instruction. Similar schools are instituted in the country. But, as the most essential point is to procure able teachers, the object at present in view is to form in the district of the university, five seminaries for qualifying schoolmasters for the country, under the direct superintendance of the inspector of the district in which they may be placed. The Emperor of Russia has granted 42,000 roubles per annum for the support of those five seminaries, which will continue in full activity for three years. In each seminary will be two professors; the chief professor is to have 1000, and the second 500 roubles per ann. besides lodgings and fire. It is expected that some of the pupils educated at the university will be found qualified for some of these situations.

The seminary for children is under the superintendance of three directors, namely, the professor of philosophy, the professor of history, and the professor of ancient classical history; and it is intended to form able teachers for every kind of scholastic establishment. Each pupil is to continue two years in the house, and is obliged to attend all the lessons, and to perform such exercises as the directors prescribe. In order that the different lessons should form a regular course of lectures on the various parts of knowledge which are comprehended in classical education, several other professors discourse on the different sciences. Besides the lessons of the professors there are practical exercises: a certain number of children from the public schools are called to the seminary, and instructed by the other pupils, in order to qualify themselves to teach, and to acquire a proper method of teaching. Each student, while in the seminary, receives 300 roubles yearly, and engages to accept of a situation as professor in one of the public schools, when appointed, and to fill it for at least ten years.

Imperial Ladies' Seminary suppressed.

In February last the Imperial Seminary for the reception of young ladies, founded by the Empress Elizabeth, on the same model as the convent of Saint-Cyr in France, and amply endowed by Catherine II., was suppressed by virtue of an *ukase*. The Emperor Alexander, in the preamble of his edict, declares, that those funds would be used to greater advantage, if they were applied to the education and training of those youths who are intended to serve their country. The education of a female being chiefly limited to the management of family affairs, she will sooner be made acquainted with domestic concerns in her father's house, than in a sumptuous school, where it is attempted but in vain, to teach them the rudiments of sciences, the knowledge of which nature does not allow them to acquire.

College in Georgia.

The Emperor Alexander has just founded a College at Teflis, in Georgia. An ecclesiastic of that country is placed at the head of the establishment, who is a man of great literary knowledge, and understands the Russian language. Translations into the Georgian tongue of several useful works are already begun; and in return, translations into the Russian language of the work of the celebrated Georgian poet, Russawell, and of a renowned novel writer named Sergei Tmogwell, are expected.

SPAIN.

Silk Manufacture.

The government of Spain is anxiously endeavouring to encourage the manufacture of Silk, which has been neglected for some time in the kingdom of Valencia. The Œconomical Society of that city, agreeably to the desire of the King, has lately promised a reward of 1500 reals, payable at the latter end of the year, to that commune which shall have used most successfully, in the spinning warehouses, the reels of Vaucanson

which though greatly commended, are only used in one of the manufactories of the kingdom. The same Society likewise encourages, by means of premiums, the fabrication of Count Rumford's economical stoves, which save three fifths of the fuel consumed by other constructions. Some of these economical stoves have been made at Madrid, by an able artizan, Don Julian Rodriguez, and serve as patterns.

Literature.

A Plan of the City of Jerusalem, and its Environs, as they were at the time of J. C. is recently published at Madrid. It includes representations of the edifices and places mentioned in Scripture; the walls, gates, and squares of that famous city; particularly the road along which the Saviour of the World was conducted from the Garden of Olives to Mount Calvary. To the above is added, as a supplement, the recent excursion of a Spaniard, who gives an account of the present sanctuaries of Palestine.

It would be wrong to imagine, as some do who know but little of the state of Spain, that hardly any works except on religion are printed in that country. The work above mentioned is interesting in many other respects. Another, published at the same time, will find readers in foreign countries; it is an accurate Description of the Islands of St. Domingo, Tortola, Jamaica, their productions, &c. with the history of the wars that have taken place on their account between Spain and the Pirates, &c. &c.

We believe Spain is the only European country which of late years has maintained any intercourse with Jerusalem: the Spanish Sovereign, not many years ago, liberated the monastery in this city from a heavy arrear of debt due to the Turks, &c.

Great part of the new publications in Spain relate to devotion: one of them cannot but excite attention, were it only on account of its title: "The Excellence of Evangelical Virginity, together with a short apology for Christian philosophy, in reply to the philosophers of the age."

Medals, Coins, Monuments.

Don Juan de Erro Azspiroz has just published in Madrid an "Alfabeto de la lingua primitiva de Espana," with elucidations from the most ancient medals, coins, and monuments of the Spaniards.

Population and Institutions.

A Spanish work has been published at Venice, on the increase of population in Spain; wherein are proposed means of preserving the lives of 5000 individuals who die yearly in orphan-hospitals, gaols, &c. The author is Don Alb. de Megnino, Spanish and Etrurian Consul at Venice. The book is very interesting, but the reading of it necessarily produces the most gloomy reflections. It might serve as a history of the calamities "which flesh is heir to." The average number of orphans that die in the hospitals of Spain amount, annually, to 21,000, which is in the proportion of 75 in 100 of those admitted.

Burying Grounds.

The measure so much recommended by the Spanish government, of placing the burying grounds without the towns, continues to be adopted in different parts of Spain. Puebla de Montalvan, an obscure town, has lately displayed distinguished zeal in an instance of this kind. The double inscription which appears at the entrance of its ground, is well calculated to attract observation. It seems to offer a model of laconic expression in the literary style:

La piedad y la vigilancia de la Iglesia
Y del gobierno:
Al reposo de los muertas y à la
Concervacion de los vivos. Anno 1806

The piety and the vigilance
Of the Church and of the Government
To the repose of the dead,
And the preservation of the living. 1806.

TARTARY.

Discovery of a City.

In the island of Taman, in the Black Sea, the foundations of an ancient city, which must have been very large although not mentioned in history, were lately discovered: it is said that a similar discovery has been made in a district of Siberia.

TURKEY.

Arabian Works printed at Scutari, near Constantinople.

The Grand Signior's press established at Scutari, under the direction of Abdorrhaman Effendi, has published the following works.

1. Commentary on a book with this title, (in Arabic), "Revelation of Mysteries," 267 pages, in small 4to. The editor says in his introduction, that the author is the Scheik Mohammed Barevu; that he has published this work for the use of his two sons; and that its title (in Arabic) was "The Fruits of Reflection." This work was finished in the month of Ramadan, in the year of the Hegira 1085 (7th April, 1674), and the reimpression in the month of Shawal, in the year 1219 (April 1804.)

2. Commentary on the Book of the Hundred Regents, 88 pages, small 4to. Printed in the year 1220 (1st April, 1805.)

3. An Arabic Grammar, from Yrub Awamel, completed in the month of Rabia, in the year 1144 (July 1731), and printed in the month of Moharrem 1220. 118 pages, in small 4to.

The "Books of Euclid," in the Arabic language, with the Commentaries of Nasir-eddin, will shortly follow.

Avalanche of a Mountain-top in Switzerland.

The following occurrence is, in its nature, so extremely interesting to humanity, and to philosophy also, that we have thought it our duty to give a complete view of the subject, by annexing the latest authentic details from publications sanctioned by the government of Switzerland.

Berne, Sept. 7.—We received information, two days since of a dreadful accident which has destroyed several villages in the canton of Schwitz, situate between the lakes of Zug and Lauwertz. M. M. Freudenreich and Schlatter, directors of the mines, set out yesterday evening by order of government, to give aid. The following are the details of this disaster, the most dreadful recorded in the annals of Switzerland.

On Tuesday, the 2d of September, at five in the evening, the Knippenbuhl Rock, which formed the summit of mount Rosemberg, was on a sudden detached from its station and at the same time part of the mountain, of several feet in thickness, on the western side, and about 280 feet in thickness on the east side, gave way and fell into the valley which separates the lake of Zug from that of Lauwertz, overwhelming the whole of the villages of Goldau, Rhœthan, Businger, Huzloch, three parts of that of Lauwertz; and some houses in the village of Stein. The fall of one part of the mountain into the lake of Lauwertz, about a fourth part of which is filled up, caused such an agitation in the waters of the lake, that they overthrew a number of houses, chapels, mills, &c. along the southern shore of the lake; amongst others the mill of Lauwertz, where fifteen persons were killed and buried in the ruins of the buildings, all the parts of which were dispersed with such violence that the foundation only remains. This mill was situated 50 or 60 feet above the level of the lake.

The waves also beat against the village of Seeven, situate at the extremity of the lake, and destroyed some houses. Two persons were killed. In the villages which were overwhelmed, not an individual escaped. Upwards of 1,000 persons have been victims of this disaster. A society of travellers, thirteen in number, were on the road from Arth to Schwitz: nine who walked first perished; the other four, who were about forty paces distant, escaped. Those who were killed were, M. M. Rodolph Jenner, of Brestenberg; Colonel Victor Steigner, of Berne; Charles May, of Ruth; Doctor Ludwig, of Arbon, in Thurgovia, Mademoiselle Diesbach, of Berthoud; Madame Diesbach, of Watteville; Madame Frankhauser, of Berthoud; and two Guides, of Arth. Five minutes sufficed to complete this disaster.

At Schwitz, some persons heard the noise, and saw at a distance the vapour which covered the place where the accident happened, and which was carried towards Zug, on the opposite side, with a strong sulphurous smell. The falling of the mountain extended from the summit to the opposite side beyond the lake, a distance of three leagues from north to south, and a league and a quarter from west to east. There is nothing now to be seen but melancholy ruins, through the whole of that country which presented the richest communes in the canton of Schwitz, inhabited by a brave and faithful people. Only thirty persons remain out of this interesting population.

Several circumstances attending this event are very remarkable. Enormous masses of rock were carried through the air to prodigious distances. The rocks, in falling, drew with them immense masses of earth, of from ten to eighty feet in thickness; and numbers of these masses, together with large blocks of flint stone, were thrown on the opposite shore, to the height of from eighty to one hundred feet. One can scarcely believe one's eyes when one sees these phenomena. Every instant one sees houses, some forced on one side, others cut in two and separated at great distances, and others carried more than a quarter of a league from their foundations

The Lake of Lauwertz has lost about a quarter of its extent, but its recovered part is filled at present by the waters of several brooks, which no longer flow. That rich plain, which was so beautiful, now presents a mountain of near 100 feet in height, of a league and a half in length, and as much in breadth.

Mount Rosemberg bears E. N. E. from Arth. It is its western part which has fallen down; that which was on the side of Arth, after descending direct towards its base, was suddenly thrown to the east, and thus Arth, Zug, and all that side of the Lake were saved. The thickness of the mass carried down, appeared to be two feet on the western side, and upwards of 150 on the east side. The Knippenbuhl seemed to have announced this misfortune so early as the year 1774, when it detached itself from the mass of the mountain. The Isle of Schwanau, elevated on a rock, in the middle of the Lake, experienced also some damage, particularly its church. The good Hermit was fortunately at Ensiddlen. The ong road of the Lake is broken in a thousand places.

Succours have been sent with the greatest promptitude. Six hundred workmen from Zug and Schwitz have gone to the banks of the Lake of Lauwertz, particularly to the mouth of the Seeven. This small river was so obstructed by ruins of all descriptions, woods, trees, houses, &c. that without prompt assistance, the safety of all the houses below Schwitz to Brunnen, would have been menaced.

One man had the good fortune to withdraw in time under ground, with his servant and a child, which he held in his arms. In one house near Arth is still living, a poor man, who had both his thighs broken During the search which has already been made twenty persons were discovered dead at the entrance of the village of Goldau, men, women, and children, some having their arms, others their heads, others their legs separated from their bodies, and the bodies some cut in half. We have coasted along the foot of Riga, where the greatest part of those who survived this catastrophe took refuge, alas! not more than thirty. An old man whom we met, said to us, "I had sons, daughters, and a great number of grand children. I had a wife and other relations. I alone remain." A little girl said, "I have no longer father or mother, brothers or sisters." A woman had lost her mother, husband brothers, sisters, and five children

The villages of Goldau and Rothen, consisting

of 115 houses, that of Busingen, of 126, and that of Huzloch, have totally disappeared. Of Lauwertz, which lost 25 houses, there remain ten buildings, all much damaged. Stein has lost two houses and several stables, which were in great numbers in all these villages.

P. S. Twenty years since General Pfyffer predicted this catastrophe, from the knowledge which he had of the nature of the mountain. A professor of Schwitz said, that above Spietzfluc was a sea of water, which had undermined the rock for several years, and that below there was a cavern of great depth, where the waters were engulphed. The quantity of water which has fallen during the preceding years, has hastened this catastrophe, and the rains of some weeks past have decided it.

The losses occasioned by this dreadful avalanche of stone as reported to Government, amounts to 159,705 francs, and is by no means exaggerated. The following is an account of all the communes damaged, with an estimation of their losses.—Daltenwyl 55,333 fr. 3 b. 3 r.; Ober-Rikenhach 18,666 fr. 6 b. 6 r.; Welfenchiessen 36,168 fr. 6 b. 6 r.; Oberbween and Zumligen 12,604 fr.; Un-erbween 6,066 fr. 6 b. 6 r.; Enneumoos 4,200 fr.; Steinz and Stansstad 26,666 fr. 6 b. 6 r. Total 159,705 fr. 9 b. 7 r.

Berne, 21 Sept. A small pamphlet has been published which contains; 1st. an official report from the senators Frendenreick and Beys, relative to the misfortunes of the Canton of Schwitz: 2d. of Mr. Schlatter, director of the mines, on the same subject: 3d. an account of the curate of Lauwertz, who saw the fall of Spizenbirel. We shall extract from these different narratives what appears to be the latest information.

It is impossible, say Messrs. Frendenreick and Bey, to calculate the extent and consequence of this misfortune; the damage amounts to many millions. The most unfortunate circumstance is the probable extension of the disaster; particularly on the side of Arth. A mass of stones situated on the top of the rock which is removed, and a wood which has already quitted its place, appear ready to fall. Among the fallen ruins is a considerable quantity of water, which at present forms a swamp, but being constantly augmented by the rivulets, will work itself a way, and the dreadful consequences are incalculable.

The unfortunate Canton of Schwitz cannot prevent these disasters; the government and the people anxiously wait the event. The report that several workmen had lost their lives, is unfounded. 250 men are continually engaged in cutting a passage for the water; in cutting a road on the Rigi, to open a communication between Schwitz and Arth; in collecting the ruins of the houses; in searching for the bodies of the sufferers, and burying them; and in general in affording assistance wherever wanted.

M. Schlatter observes, that a considerable mass of rock, and part of a forest, which is moved 150 paces from its original situation still threatens to fall. The first heavy rain will probably bring it down, or perhaps the melting of the snow in the spring.

The curate of Lauwertz relates a remarkable incident of a woman and child, found alive and unhurt under the ruins, where they had remained a whole night: they say, they heard other persons, buried as they were, weep and groan. This renders probable the idea of a traveller who visited the place two days after the disaster, that some of the unfortunate sufferers might be extricated alive. It also appears, that the mountain has not fallen vertically, but sliding on an inclined plane, bore away in its prolonged descent, a great many houses, and the earth on which they stood, much below their foundations. Many undoubtedly were crushed by the enormous mass which overwhelmed them; others, which the mountain afterwards reached, would experience less pleasure; some, at the outskirts of the villages, were, perhaps, mostly covered, or their upper parts demolished. It is therefore possible, that in some ground floor, there may be found persons surviving this disaster.

EXTRACT OF LONDON GAZETTE,

Admiralty Office, October 4, 1806.

Letter from Rear Admiral Sir Thomas Louis, to Sir Charles Cotton, Bart., dated Canopus, at Sea, Sept. 29, 1806.—Sir; I have to inform you with my falling in with the French frigate le Président, of 44 guns, 330 men, commanded by Monsieur Gallier Labrosse, on the 27th instant, in lat. 47 deg. 17 min. N. long. 6 deg. 52 min. W. and after a chace of seventeen hours, she struck to his Majesty's squadron under my command. The Président is one of the frigates that sailed from France with the Regulus, Sybille, and Surveillante corvette; separated in a gale of wind on the 20th of August, in lat. 22 deg. 26 min. N. and long. 55 deg. W. I have the honour to be, &c

(Signed) THO. LOUIS.

Sir Charles Cotton, Bart. &c. &c.

Letter from Sir Samuel Hood, K. B. to Sir Charles Cotton, Bart. dated Centaur, at Sea, 26th Sept. 1806.—Sir; yesterday morning, about one o'clock, I had the good fortune of falling in with a squadron of the enemy, standing to the Westward; the squadron under my orders being then on the larboard tack, stretching in for Chafferon Light-house, six or seven leagues from us, the Revenge to windward, and the Monarch to leeward on the look out, the latter ship first making the signal for an enemy, when I soon discovered seven sail to leeward of me, and considering them, in part, line of battle ships, the signal was made to form the line, and shortly after I observed them bearing up, making all sail, and running to the S. S. W. The signal was instantly made for a general chace, and the Monarch, from her position and good sailing, was enabled to keep nearly within gunshot, a mile and a half, or little more, a-head of the Centaur, and the Mars on the starboard bow. At day-light we made them out five large French frigates, and two corvettes, one of which bearing a broad pendant; at five the Monarch fired a few chase shot: and at six the weathermost frigate hauled more to the Westward, in pursuit of which I dispatched the Mars; and one frigate, with the two corvettes, edged away to the South-East; the remaining three frigates keeping in close order, indicating the intention of supporting each other. At a quarter past ten the Monarch opened her starboard guns on the enemy, when a heavy cannonading commenced, and by the enemy's manage-

ment of a running fight, they succeeded, in some measure, in crippling the Monarch's sails and rigging before the Centaur could get up. At eleven we got within fair range of two, and opened our fire from the larboard guns, whilst the Monarch kept engaging the third ship, and about noon one of the two frigates struck, as did the one opposed to the Monarch shortly after. It was just before this I received a severe wound in my right arm (since amputated, and doing well I hope), which obliged me to leave the deck; the Mars previous to this, had succeeded in capturing her chase, and with her prize, hauled towards the Centaur, in chace of, and firing at the French Commodore's ship, and at three assisted in capturing her.—Those ships of the enemy made an obstinate resistance, but the result was, as may well be supposed, attended with much slaughter, being crowded with troops, out of Rochefort, the evening before.—I cannot add too much praise to Capt. Lee of the Monarch, for his gallant and officer-like conduct, but I am sorry to find his loss has been rather severe, the swell of the sea preventing, at times, the opening of the lower deck ports.—To Capt. Lukin, of the Mars, I feel thankful, for his steady conduct and attention; and, I have also to express my satisfaction at the endeavours of Capts. Boyles, King, Sir John Gore, and Masefield, in getting up with the enemy, although they could not succeed. The Revenge, from being well to windward, became considerably a-stern after bearing up.—To Lieut. Case, first of the Centaur, I have to add my approbation of his judicious conduct, before and after my leaving the deck; and I also feel much pleased at the steady exertions of all my officers, Seamen, and Marines.—I inclose herewith, a return of Killed and Wounded, and I also annex a List of the enemy's Ships captured, and will make a return of their loss as soon as possible. I have the honour to be, &c. SAM. HOOD.

Total—9 killed and 32 wounded. Officers killed and wounded. *Centaur.*—Captain Sir Samuel Hood, K. B. wounded. *Monarch.*—Mr. Bigden, Midshipman, killed; Lieutenant Anderson, Mr. Duffy, Boatswain, and Mr. Geary, Midshipman, wounded. (Signed) SAMUEL HOOD.

Enemy's ships captured. *La Gloire*, of 46 guns, M. Soleil, Capitaine de vaisseau, carrying a broad pendant: *L'Indefatigable*, of 44 guns, M. Girardiers, Capitaine de vaisseau. *La Minerve*, of 44 guns, quite new, M. Golet, Capitaine de frégate. *L'Armide*, of 44 guns, two years old, M. Langlois, Capitaine de Frégate.

Remarkable fine ships, of large dimensions, mounting 28 French 18 pounders on their main decks: 30 pounder carronades on their quarter deck, and forecastles, and about 650 men (including troops) in each ship, full of stores, arms, ammunition, and provisions, &c.—La Themis, of 44 guns, old, escaped.—Le Sylph, of 18 guns, new, escaped.—La Lynx, of 10 guns, new, escaped.

Letter from Capt. Thicknesse of the Sheldrake Sloop, to Rear Admiral Sir J. Saumarez, Bart. dated St. Aubin's Bay, Jersey, October 15, 1806.

SIR.—I have the honour to inform you, for the information of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, that his Majesty's ship Constance, in company with the Sheldrake, Strenuous, and Britannia hired cutter, weighed on the 12th instant, at six A. M. from the anchorage at Chansey, with the tide at ebb, and a light breeze at S. E., on standing in to renconnoitre St. Maloes, a sail was discovered off Cape Frehel; to which the squadron gave chace, employing their sweeps nearly the whole way; it was soon discovered by her manœuvres, that the chase was an enemy, who about noon succeeded in getting into Bouche D'Arkie, hauling close in with the rocks, and carrying out bow and quarter springs, and otherwise preparing for an obstinate defence, covered by a strong battery of guns on the hill, as well as field-pieces and musketry employed by the troops brought down for that purpose; in this state they waited to receive us; their determined appearance only increased the ardour of the brave Captain Burrowes (who, I am sorry to add, fell gloriously by a grape shot in the heat of the action). The Sheldrake, by superior sailing, had the good fortune to lead into action, followed by the Strenuous, the squadron being anchored within pistol-shot of the enemy, with springs on their cables; at two P. M. a most spirited fire commenced on both sides, which was supported with great gallantry and obstinacy on the part of the enemy's ship, till four P. M. when it pleased God to give us the victory. I sent my First Lieutenant to take possession of her, and the British colours were immediately hoisted. She proves to be the Salamander, a French frigate-built ship, mounted with twenty six long 12 and 18 pounders, and manned, by their own account, with one hundred and fifty men, and was commanded by a Lieutenant de Vaisseau, who was killed in the action; she was bound from St. Maloes to Brest, with ship timber.

His Majesty's ship Constance having taken the ground, and the prize also a-ground, every exertion was used to get both ships off; but I am sorry to add, without success; the fire of the cannon and musketry from the shore, becoming now so galling and tremendous, that the people could not shew themselves on deck; the Constance having cut both cables during the action, and the wharps which had been run out to heave her off shot away; at the moment of her floating she drifted with the wind on the shore, further on the rocks, which obliged the Officers and crew to abandon her, without firing her, the decks being filled with wounded; observing, however, as the tide rose she began to float, I was induced, great as the risk was, to make another attempt to save her which also proved unsuccessful, those employed on the service being either killed or made prisoners. Night now closing in on us, it became necessary to consult the safety of the Sheldrake and Strenuous (the latter with her fore-top-mast shot away); at break of day I stood in to see if any thing further could be done, and was happy to observe the Constance was high and dry on the rocks under the battery, and lying keel up a perfect wreck; the prize which had not drifted so far in, I succeeded in totally destroying by fire at low water. I have saved about 100 of the Officers and crew of the Constance; of those missing, I hope most are made prisoners, though I fear some may have fallen in the second attempt to recover his Majesty's ship.

The lamented death of my respected friend

Captain Burrowes (who, had he lived, would have given their Lordships a more clear and detailed account than I am able to do of this affair, leaves me the duty of bearing testimony to the determined courage, coolness, and ardour displayed by every Officer and man in the squadron. I must particularly mention the assistance I received from my First Lieutenant Richard Kevern, a most meritorious and old Officer, whom I presume to recommend to their Lordships' favourable notice. I must also bear testimony to the zeal and bravery of Lieutenant Nugent, commanding the Strenuous gun-brig, who on this, as well as former occasions, has ever shewn himself a gallant and zealous Officer. Lieutenant William Lawrence, my Second Lieutenant, to whom I committed the service of destroying the prize, performed it very much to his own credit and my satisfaction. I am sorry to state that Mr. Henry Fraser, Master of the Sheldrake, who volunteered in the most gallant manner to accompany Mr. Richards, First Lieutenant of the Constance, in the second attempt to save the ship, are amongst the missing.—I herewith have the honour to inclose as correct a List of the Killed and Wounded as, from circumstances, I have been able to obtain; as also a List of Prisoners saved from the prize. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) JOHN THICKNESSE.

P. S. As Lieutenant Lawrence saw about thirty killed lying on the Salamander's decks I conceive the slaughter on board her must have been very great. Numbers of her crew escaped in boats, and by swimming to the shore, on her striking. (Signed) JOHN THICKNESSE.

List of Killed and Wounded on board His Majesty's Ships Constance, Sheldrake, and Strenuous, in action on the 12th instant.

Constance.—*Killed*, Capt. Burrowes; Ben. Leviston, Serjeant of Marines; W. Bunbridge, J. Charlotte, E. Ryan, seamen; J. M'Ireson, Quarter-Master; R. Robinson, Boatswain's Mate; J. Gillford, Quarter-Master; J. Wilson (2), Quarter-Master.

Since dead of their Wounds.—L. Coglan, Seaman; T. M'Andrew, Marine; J. Patterson, Quarter-Master; J. Giles, Marine.

Slightly Wounded.—Mr. Richards, First Lieutenant; J. Navy, J. Clark, T. Howe, T. Little, P. Murrow, E. Trout, J. Flynn, S. Breasur, R. Wallas, Seamen.

Badly Wounded.—D. M'Cawley, Boatswain; W. Morton, Marine.

His Majesty's Sloop Sheldrake.—*Killed*, J. Brown, Seaman.—*Wounded*. E. Hunt and J. Culbert, Seamen. His Majesty's Gun brig Strenuous.—None killed—*Wounded*, R. Bond, Midshipman, slightly; J. Buttersley, Marine, severely; H. Howard, Seaman, J. Bale, Quarter-Master, and J. Hawkins, Marine, slightly.

Killed and Wounded on board the Salamander—Killed not known.—Wounded (now on board the Sheldrake) nine, two since dead.

The London Gazette of Oct. 4, contains two Orders of Council, of the 1st instant: One, for encouraging the trade to Buenos Ayres, and confirming the Order of Council issued on the 17th ult.—The other for adding all sorts of live stock to the articles permitted to be imported into the West-India Islands.

PROMOTIONS.

FROM THE LONDON GAZETTE.

Sept. 23. The King has been pleased, by warrant, under his Royal Signet and Sign Manual, to give and grant unto Major-Gen. Sir John Stuart, Knight (whom his Majesty has nominated to be one of the Knights Companions of the Most Honourable Military Order of the Bath), his Royal licence and permission to accept the title of Count of Maida, in Calabria, conferred upon him by Ferdinand the Fourth, King of the Two Sicilies.

Sept. 27. His Majesty having been pleased to appoint the Right Honourable Charles Grey, commonly called Lord Viscount Howick, to be one of his Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, he was this day, by his Majesty's command, sworn one of his Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State accordingly.

Sept. 30. The King has been pleased to constitute and appoint the Right Honourable George Tierney, the Right Honourable George John Earl Spencer, Knight of the Most Noble Order of the Garter; the Right Hon. Wm. Windham; the Right Hon. Charles Grey, (commonly called Viscount Howick), his Majesty's three Principal Secretaries of State; the Right Hon. William Windham, Baron Grenville, First Commissioner of his Majesty's Treasury; the Right Hon. Henry Petty, (commonly called Lord Henry Petty), Chancellor and Under Treasurer of his Majesty's Exchequer; the Right Hon George Howard, (commonly called Viscount Morpeth); the Right Hon. John Hiley Addington; the Right Hon. John Sullivan, and the Right Hon. John Joshua Earl of Carysfort, Knight of the Illustrious Order of St Patrick, to be his Majesty's Commissioners for the Management of the Affairs of India.

Oct. 11. His Majesty in Council was this day pleased to declare Henry Viscount Sidmouth, Lord President of his Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council, and his Lordship took his place at the Board accordingly.

Oct. 18. The king has been pleased to order a Congé d'Elire to pass the great Seal, empowering the Dean and Chapter of the Cathedral Church of St. Asaph to elect a Bishop to that See, void by the death of the Right Reverend Father in God Doctor Samuel Horsley, late Bishop thereof; and his Majesty has also been pleased to recommend the Right Reverend Father in God, Doctor William Cleaver, Bishop of Bangor, to be by them elected Bishop of the said See of St. Asaph.

Treasury Chambers, Whitehall, Oct. 17, 1786.

The Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury have been pleased to appoint John Lewis Mallett, Esq. to be Secretary to the Commissioners for Auditing the Public Accounts.

UNIVERSITY PROMOTIONS.

Oxford, Oct. 11, 1806.—Wednesday last the Rev. Henry Richards, D.D. Rector of Exeter College, having been nominated by his Grace the Duke of Portland, Chancellor of the University, was, in full convocation, invested with the office of Vice-Chancellor for the year ensuing.

The Rev. Michael Marlow, D D. President of St. John's College; the Rev. Whittington Landon, D.D. Provost of Worcester College; the

Rev. John Parsons, D. D. Master of Balliol College; and the Rev. David Hughes, D D. Principal of Jesus College, were nominated Pro-Vice-Chancellors

Thursday the Rev. W. T. Williams, M A. of Corpus Christi College, was admitted Fellow of that Society.

Oct 10.—The first day of Michaelmas Term, the Rev. Joshua Robinson, Student in Law, of St Mary Hall, was admitted Batchelor of Law. Mr. William Burge of Wadham College, was admitted Batchelor of Arts.

The ensuing week is fixed for the visitation of Reading School. Archbishop Laud appointed three visito s, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford, the President of st. John's, and the Warden of All Soul's Colleges. This ceremony takes place every third year. The Archbishop left a sum of money to the Corporation of Reading to defray the expenses of the Visitors, who are likewise to audit the accounts of all the benefactions of the Archbishop to that town. Among these is a part of the sa ary of the master of the school, and we find in Mr. Coates's History of Reading, that the visitors had exercised the power of ordering the salary to be withheld from the m ster, on the charge of neglect of duty.

Since the time of Archbishop Laud, it has been usual for the scholars of that seminary to perform plays, or recite speeches before the visitors, who are always accompanied by the members of the corporation of Reading.

Cambridge, Oct. 6.—The Rev. John Henry Renouard, A M. one of the Senior Fellows of Trinity College, is chosen Vice-Master of that Society, on the resignation of the Rev Mr. Davies.

Messrs. Peter Paul Dobree, John Powell, John Clarkson, and Wilkinson Matthews, Batchelors of Arts, of Trinity College, were on Wednesday elected Fellows of that Society.

The Rev. Philip Duval Aufrere is instituted to the vicarage of Bacton in Norfolk, on the presentation of the hon. John Woodhouse.

The Rev. William Wright Willcocks is instituted to the vicarage of Barney, in Norfolk, on the presentation of Sir John Astley, Bart.

The Rev. Richard Gouch is instituted to the rectory of Frestendon in Suffolk, on the presentation of Sir Thomas Gouch, Bart.

The King has been pleased to grant to the Rev. Jo eph Allen, A. M. clerk, and Fellow of Trinity College, the place and dignity of a Canonry or Prebend of the Collegiate Church of St. Peter, Westminster, void by the death of Dr. William Cole, late one of the Prebendaries thereof.

His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales has been pleased to appoint the Rev. Thomas Hammond Foxcroft, A M. late of St. Peter's College, rector of Beauchamp Rooding, in the County of Essex, and vicar of Stoke Gifford, in the county of Gloucester, to be one of his chaplains in ordinary.

BANKRUPTS.

Sept. 23. George Hawitt, Liverpool, merchant.
Samuel Strutt, Bowgate-hill, biscuit baker.
Robert Lewis and James Darvell, Holborn, mercers.
John Underhill, Barbican, straw-hat-manufacturer.
Richard Forbin, Lancaster, dealer.
Richard Savage, Bristol, twine-spinner.
Sept. 27. Ann Harding, Bristol, haberdasher.
Francis Oliver, Tottenham High Cross, grocer.
Joseph Bragge, of Girton, Nottinghamshire, dealer.
Claudius Chervet and James Fletcher, late of Wallbrook, London.
James Clark, of Houndsditch, cock and brass-founder.
Sept. 30. Alice Halbert and George Halbert, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, drapers.
Teulmar Bauck, Queen-street, Cheapside, sugar-refiner.
Henry Richard Bowen, Bath, chinaman.
Thomas Jackson, Liverpool, hatter.
Samuel Bottomley, Salford, Lancashire, liquor-merchant.
John Stubbs, Bristol, house-carpenter.
Oct. 4. Charles Jones, Liverpool, merchant.
Thomas Norman, Shenstond, Staffordshire, innkeeper.
Jesse Parker, Edgbaston, Warwickshire, rope-maker.
John Smith, Wooldale, Yorkshire.
William Storey, Elias Smallwood, and James Scholes, Manchester, calico-printers.
William Holloway, Dursley, and Thomas Greening, Cam, Gloucestershire, clothiers.
James Arundel Rowe, Paul's-court, Huggin-lane, Wood-street, linen-draper.
John Dibble, Great Mary-le-bone-street, cheesemonger.
David Stephenson, Strand, boot-maker.
Thomas Davis, Duke-street, Grosvenor-square, apothecary.
Oct. 11. Wm. Furber and Robert Furber, Hanham, Gloucestershire, and John Furber, Bath, tallow-chandlers.
Ralph Kirk, of Wheelock, Cheshire, cotton-spinner.
William Altham, Tokenhouse-yard, broker.
John Deakin, Manchester, manufacturer.
Lawrence Hayden, Cheltenham, linen-draper.
John Carrington, Manchester, hardwareman.
Robert Poole, Ratcliffe Highway, linen-draper.
John Armstrong, High-street, Southwark, linen-draper.
Joseph Dean, Watling-street, wholesale linen-draper.
James Geddes, Cleveland-street, Fitzroy-square, hour-dealer.
John Thompson, Hand-court, Upper Thames-street, wholesale stationer.
John Lewis Pasteur, Stoney-Stratford, Buckinghamshire, grocer.
Alfred Adams, Chester-place, Lambeth, timber-merchant.
Thomas Greening, Cam, Gloucestershire, clothier.
James Jackson, Richmond, Yorkshire, grocer.
Thomas Home, Bishop's Castle, Salop, mercer.
George Mather and James Hutchinson, Manchester, joiners.
George Sidgreaves, Preston, Lancashire, cotton manufacturer.
Oct. 18. Joseph Hofer, Poole, Dorsetshire, linen-draper.
Richard Willetts and Joseph Jones, Manchester, manufacturers.
Richard Willetts, Salford, Lancaster, manufacturer.
James Lilly, Staley Bridge, Lancashire, cotton-spinner.
James Knowles Gwyndu, Anglesey, innkeeper.
Charles Swain, of Birmingham, tobacconist.
John Bowler, of Bishop's Wearmouth, Durham, hatter.
Simony Metz, of St. Mary Axe, merchant.
Charles M'Hardy, William Simon, Arrowsmith Middleton, and James Lythgoe, of Liverpool, tobacconists.
William Purbick, of Gloucester, linen-draper.
George Blackburne, of London, insurance broker.
William Clarke, of Wapping High-street, butcher.
William Barrow Arnold, Rotherhithe, carver, and victualler.

DIVIDENDS.

Sept. 23. Luke Gherrin, Stepney, cow keeper. David Glover, Gutter lane, merchant. George Richardson, Gough-square, furrier. Stephen Newton Chiswell, Wareham, Suffolk, shopkeeper. George Brown, Old City Chambers, Bishopsgate-street, merchant. Stephen Faulkner, Lin Dillon, and John Hartell, Bolton-en-le-Moors, Lancashire, cotton-spinners. Wm. M'Kinlay, Liverpool, linen draper. John Lewin, Gosport, dealer.

Sept. 27. George Robinson and John Robinson, Paternoster-row, booksellers. Joseph Pidduck, Kidderminster, miller. John Walkins the younger, Lyc, Worcester, victualler. Joseph Stevens, Gravesend, linen-draper. Charles Thacker, the younger, Great Yarmouth, Norfolk, seedsman. William Beach, of Ludlow, Salop, mercer. Thomas Edwards, of Wribbenhall, Worcestershire, shopkeeper. James Trenlett, of Exeter, dyer. Levi Samuel Linging and William Henry Linging, of Green Lettice Lane, merchants. John William Usher, Bowling-green-lane, Clerkenwell, victualler. Robert Wallas, of King-street, wholesale linen-draper. James Masterman, late of Bucklersbury, warehouseman. William Kendall, late of Manchester street, Manchester square, builder. Benjamin Osler, Falmouth, merchant. Thomas Bevan Farmer, Rotherhithe,

Surrey, carpenter. John Heyes, Lancaster, dyer. William Lawley, Cleobury Mortimer, shropshire, timber merchant. John Johnson, Dog row, Bethnal Green, horse dealer. Edward Winwood and Samuel Thodey, Poultry, Scotch factors.

Sept. 30. Wm. Skinner, East-lane, Greenwich, victualler. Wm. Hodgson, Strand, stationer. James Young, Southampton, linen draper. Charles Battersbury, Wapping High-street, ship chandler. Stephen Dexter, Belper, Derbyshire, dealer. John Hawthorne, jun. Wirksworth, Derbyshire, linen draper. John Rusher, Reading, hosier. Thomas Willis, Bath, carpenter. John Carlier and William Wilkinson, Stockport, Cheshire, muslin manufacturers. Jane Vickers, Bath, milliner. Barnet Hole, Painswick, Gloucestershire, clothier. William Barth, Chester, linen draper. Samuel Nichols, jun. Bath, upholsterer.

Oct. 4. John Campbell, Epworth, Lincolnshire, mercer, John Smalley, William Ellison, and Robert Walmsley, Blackburn, Lancashire, cotton manufacturers. William Henry Ravenscroft, Michael Edwin Fell, and James Entwisle, Manchester, dealers in cotton yarn. John Nutter, Blackman street, Borough, cheesemonger. John Drayton Carshalton, Surrey, victualler. Thomas True, Stamford, Lincoln, draper. Thomas Hart, Bristol, merchant. James White, Newnham, Gloucester, patten-ring-maker. John Hyres, of Sun-street, Bishopsgate street, tallow-chandler. Lydia and William Woods, of Hampstead, Middlesex, carpenters. John M'Carty, of Liverpool, merchant.

Oct. 7. Howard Spicer, Walden, Essex, malster. Geo. Hayes, John street, merchant. Richard Jones, Type-street Finsbury-square, confectioner. Charles Bristow, Newgate street, linen-draper. William Dewdney, Fleet-street, jeweller. Duncan Maclaurin, Watling-street, warehouseman. James Dawson, Copthall-buildings, warehouseman. John Green and James Lanesborough, Manchester, haberdashers. James Taylor, Newton Moor Lancashire, cotton-spinner. John Baxter, Harwich, linen-draper. William Randall, sen. Manningtree, Essex, innkeeper. John Stotherd, Coningsby, Lincolnshire, common-brewer. John Lees and Samuel Lees, Halifax, Yorkshire, merchants. Mark Furniss, John White and Robert Styring, Sheffield, silver-platers. Robert Whitehead, Sheffield, corn factor. Richard Walford, Chester, porter brewer. Samina Storr, Wisbech St. Peter's, Isle of Ely, plumber. William Farrer, Salford, Lancashire, plumber.

Oct. 11. Johanna Hempel, King's Road, Chelsea, potter. James Arbouin, Hart street, Crutched friars, wine-merchant. George French, Great East-cheap, broker. John French Burke, Cannon street, ship owner. James Lyon, Savage Gardens, merchant. William Angus Rochester, Kent, linen draper. William Powell, Broad street, St. Giles, linen-draper. Richard Corless, Blackburn, Lancashire, cotton manufacturer. James Bennett and Thomas Bennett, Huntingdon, drapers. William Mason, Huntingdon, grocer. Thomas Dorion Thomas, Portsea, stationer. William Humphrys the elder, and William Humphrys the younger, Old Fish-street, grocers. John Jackson, Oxford street, linen draper. Fortescue Bate Vigolane, Golden-square, print-seller. Richard Flint, Rotherham, Yorkshire, liquor-merchant. Thomas True, late of Stamford, Lincolnshire, draper. Richard Barnes, Durham, mercer. William Payne, Great Carter-lane, Doctors' Commons, druggist.

Oct. 14. John Boyes, Portsmouth, mercer. John Clarke, Gainsborough, Lincolnshire, grocer. Samuel Ferrand Waddington, York-street, Southwark, banker. John Tullock, jun Savage Gardens, broker. Thomas Woodcroft, and John Woodcroft, Sheffield Moor Yorkshire, comb manufacturers. John Gillatt, Joseph Hawksworth, and William Gillatt, Sheffield, common brewers. Robert Morris, Wigan, Lancashire, cotton manufacturer.

Oct. 18. John Morley, Sewardstone, Essex, miller. John Thomas Webster, High-street, Borough, hosier. David Glover, Gutter-lane, merchant. Thomas Simpson, Wm. Taylerson, John Sanderson, and Joseph Granger, Stokesley, Yorkshire, bankers. James Doxon, Manchester, dealer. Joseph Wood, Ashton under Lyne, Lancaster, cotton-spinner. Frederick Judin, Hatton garden, merchant Thomas Martin, Coleman-street, and, John Henry Ford, Coleman-street buildings, wool-brokers. John Alexander, of South Lambeth, Surrey, coal-merchant. John Robert Anderson of Throgmorton-street, merchant John Goodbody, late of Abingdon, Berkshire, breeches maker. John Horth, Norwich, upholsterer. Jos. Featherstone, of Tunbridge, Kent, shopkeeper.

CERTIFICATES.

Sept. 23. Christopher Wild, Manchester, victualler. Ann Kenny, Bristol, milliner. John Parkwith, King-street, Hammersmith, butcher. John Arden and John Barker Arden, York, wine-merchants.

Sept. 27. John Shaw, of Fore-street, Cripplegate, cheese-monger. John Gamson, of Kingsland road, flax-dresser. James Yeomans, Tamworth, Staffordshire, clothier. William Dean, Newbrough, Lancashire, common brewer. Richard Wilson, Bread street, London, merchant.

Sept. 30. Daniel Eckenstein, College-hill, merchant. William Turner and John Turner, Lane-end, Staffordshire, potters. George Dunman, Whitecross-street, brewer. Duncan Maclaurin, Watling-street, warehouseman.

Oct 4. Worral Palmer, Holbeach, Lincolnshire, draper. Edward Crosby, Liverpool, merchant.

Oct. 7. Richard Harrison, Hulton-lane-ends, Lancashire, innkeeper. William Stevenson, Queen-street, Pimlico, merchant. Samuel Freeman, Old Compton-street, carpenter.

Oct. 11. James Burfitt, Mere, Wiltshire, cheese-factor. Thomas Hall, of Frome Selwood, Somersetshire, clothier. John Villers, of the City of Coventry, wine and liquor-merchant. David Glover, Gutter-lane, merchant.

Oct. 18. Joseph Henson, Stepney Causeway, merchant. J. M'Dermott, Red Lion-street, Southwark, hop and seed factor. T. Kemp, Knaresborough, Yorkshire, flax-dresser. S. Stevens, Monmouth, barge-owner. J. Wells and T. Smith, Leadenhall-street, hatters. Parker Chiffney, King street, Covent-garden, patent soap manufacturer. Roger Langshaw, Chester, Liverpool, linen-draper.

BANKRUPTCIES SUPERSEDED.

Sept. 27. John Bennett, James Bennett, snd George Bennett, Bedminster, Somerset, woolstaplers.

William Critchley, Manchester, Calico-printer.

Oct 7. John Bridge and Henry Keale, Liverpool, merchants.

Oct. 11. John Bridge, Liverpool, merchant.

Oct. 14. Thomas Nott, Ledbury, Herefordshire, money scrivener.

*** *We expect from our correspondent at Hamburgh, a more particular and authentic account of the murder of M. Palm, the bookseller of Nuremberg, than has yet appeared. We flatter ourselves that it will certainly arrive in time for our next number. For the leading events vide our Advertisement.*

OBITUARY.

Oct. 2.—The Princess of Wales's carriage was overturned near Leatherhead, in Surrey, by which accident Miss Cholmondelev, one of the Maids of Honour to her Royal Highness, lost her life: and on Saturday an inquest was held on the body at the Swan Inn, Leatherhead, before C. Jemmet, Esq. Coroner for Surrey. Mr. Jardine deposed, that about four o'clock in the afternoon of Thursday, as he was standing at his father's door, he heard a noise of horses and a carriage, driving very fast from the turnpike towards where he stood, but a corner house intercepted his sight. He soon after saw a landau and four coming up, and as it turned a very acute angle of the road, just leading into the town, the carriage was overturned by the declivity of the road, close to a great tree. He ran towards the carriage, and found the persons in it were the Princess of Wales, Lady Sheffield, and Miss Cholmondeley. Miss Cholmondeley was taken to the Swan Inn, as he believed alive at the time, but she expired in a few minutes afterwards. The landau was broken to pieces. The verdict was—*Accidental Death.*

Her Royal Highness received no further injury than a slight cut upon her nose, and a bruise upon one of her arms. Lady Sheffield most providentially escaped without the smallest personal injury. Miss C. is the daughter of a Clergyman, and cousin to Earl Cholmondeley. After the inquest, the body of this unfortunate lady was removed to town for interment. Miss Cholmondeley was in the 43d year of her age.—Several shocking accidents have happened where the above took place: among the number was the late Archbishop of Narbonne's carriage, which was overturned and broken to pieces. His Grace, in consequence of the accident, was confined many months. Also the Rev. Doctor Rogers's carriage, of Mickleham, which met a similar fate. To stages and carts there have been accidents without number. The tree ought certainly to be cut down.

October 4, died at his lodgings, on the Pavilion Parade, Brighton, the celebrated Doctor Horsley, Bishop of St. Asaph. His lordship was seized, a few days before, with a bowel complaint, which baffled all medical skill, and deprived the world of one of its brightest luminaries in religion and learning, as a Theologian, a Mathematician, and a profound Classic. He was many years Rector of St. Mary's Newington, the first parish to which he was promoted, and which preferment he held long after his episcopal elevation. His lordship's first seat on the Reverend Bench, (for which he was, in a great degree, indebted to his noble friend the late Lord Thurlow,) was in 1788, as Bishop of St. David's. In 1793, he was translated to the See of Rochester, with which he held the Deanery of Westminister, and in 1802 elevated, on the demise of the Hon. Dr. Bagot, to the more lucrative Bishopric of St. Asaph. No man of the age, perhaps, possessed more of what is generally understood by the idea of *recondite* learning, or was more profoundly versed in Classical Chronology. He edited and illustrated some of the most important of Sir Isaac Newton's Works, and he was himself the author of several esteemed Mathematical and Theological productions. As a Senator, he was deservedly considered in the first class; there were few important discussions in the House of Lords, especially when the topics referred to the Hierarchial Establishments of the country, that stupendous event the French revolution, or the African Slave-Trade, of which he was a systematic opponent—in which his lordship did not participate. The Reverend Prelate was many years a leading Member of the Royal Society; but withdrew from it, as has been said, in consequence of a certain high appointment taking place, of which he disapproved. His concluding words on retiring were—"I quit that Temple where Philosophy once presided, and where Newton was her officiating Minister!"

FRANCE.

Madame Maria-Thérese Reboul, wife to Mr. Vien the Senator, died on the 26th of February last, in the 70th year of her age. She was received a Member of the Royal Academy in 1757. She excelled in painting butterflies, and birds. Her works are very scarce, as most of them are in the cabinet of the Emperor of Russia.

Botany has just lost one of those distinguished characters that cultivated its various branches with most zeal and success, in the person of M. Cels, member of the first class of the Institute, and of the commission appointed to prepare a rural code. He died 15th May, at Petit Mont-Rouge. His garden contains a very numerous collection of the scarcest plants, and the most difficult to rear in our climate. Some of them were the only specimens in France. M. Cels was buried in the evening of the 16th in the burying ground of Mont-Rouge. A great number of his colleagues of the Institute attended the funeral. Subsequent to the ceremony the Rector pronounced an oration in praise of his parishioner. After the coffin had been deposited in the grave, M. Cuvier, one of the secretaries of the class of which Mr. Cels had been a member, delivered a very pathetic oration on the loss which the Institute had sustained. Mr. Silvester de Sacy, member of the Agricultural Society, read a discourse of some length on the personal merits of his colleague and the services which he had rendered to agriculture.

LITERARY PROSPECTIVE.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

The late Mr. Pirie, of Newburgh, left in readiness for the press, A Dissertation on the Hebrew roots, pointing out their general influence on all known languages; it is expected to appear in a short time. Also

Brief Heads of Sermons, by the same author.

A new work is commenced at Perth, intitled the Picture of Scotland; it is a digested account of that kingdom on a new plan, in which the country is divided into *tours*, and the reader or traveller has a distinct view of his road, without being obliged to turn from one county to another. It will be illustrated by a map and some views.

Mr. Davis, author of Travels in Ametica, has nearly ready for publication, in one volume octavo, Memoirs of the Life of Chatterton, the poet.

An entire edition, in 4 octavo volumes, of the Literary, Moral, and Medical works of the late Dr. Percival, is in the press; to which will be prefixed, Memoirs of his Life and Writings, &c. by his Son.

Dr. Hamilton, of Halesworth, will shortly publish, a pupular Treatise on the cause and Prevention of Gout.

John Williams, Esq. has nearly ready for publication, an octavo volume, on the Climate of Great Britain; containing an enquiry into the changes it has undergone, particularly within the last fifty years, accounting for the increasing humidity, and consequent cloudiness and coldness of our springs and summers, with their effects on the animal and vegetable economy; including various experiments to ascertain the causes of such changes, arrest their progress, and counteract their effects; interspersed with numerous facts and observations, illustrative of the process in vegetation, and the connection between the phænomena of the weather, and the productions of the soil.

Mr. Samuel Young is preparing for the press a Dissertation on the Advantages of the Adhesive Strap, shewing the abuses of the ligature in the stitching of wounds.

Robert Hooper, M. D. and F. L. S. is engaged on the Physicians' Vade Mecum: to form a neat pocket volume.

Robert Jackson, M. D. will publish Remarks on the Medical Reports of the late Dr. J. Currie, on the effects of water in the cure of Fever; containing a statement of facts, respecting Dr. Jackson's management of cold-bathing, &c.

Mr. Charles Bell is engaged in The Elements of Operative Surgery; containing, under the head of each operation, 1. a concise view of the appearances and symptoms of the disease, which indicate the necessity of operation; 2. a detail of the manner of operating, and the circumstances which, if unexpected, might give embarrasment; 3. the consequences of the operation, and the danger in the progress of the cure. With some occasional discussions founded on the natural structure and the appearances of the parts in the dissection of unfortunate cases.

An edition of the genuine works of William Hogarth, is proposed, including 120 plates, engraved by Mr. Cook; accompanied with Biographical Anecdotes, a Chronological Catalogue and Commentary, by John Nichols, F. S. A. Edinburgh and Perth, and the late George Steevens, Esq. F. R. S. and F. S. A: to form two 4to volumes.

The second volume of Manning's Surrey, is in the press.

John Vetch, M. D. assistant surgeon to the 67th foot, will publish an account of the Ophthalmia, which has appeared in England since the return of the Egyptian expedition: containing an examination of the means by which the disease is communicated; the extent to which it is influenced by climate and situation; its symptoms, consequences, and treatment: with a coloured representation of its external appearances.

The Rev. W. Woods, of Leeds, is engaged on a work intituled Zoography, or the Beauties of Nature, displayed in beasts, birds, fishes, insects, shells, plants, minerals, and fossils.

The Rev. David Bogue, of Gosport, and Rev. James Bennett, of Romsey, are preparing a history of the Dissenters, from the Revolution, to be published by subscription, in 4 volumes successively.

Dr. Cogan is preparing for the press an Ethical Treatise on the Passions, founded on the principles advanced in his Philosophical Treatise. The first part, which is expected to appear in the ensuing winter, will consist of three disquisitions: on the agency of the passions in the pursuit of well-being; on the intellectual powers as directories in the pursuit; and on the nature and sources of that well-being of which the human species is susceptible.

John Pytche, Esq. who has been many years employed on a Dictionary of the English Language, has now the first number of that work in the press.

Two volumes of the Rev. Mr. Beloe's Anecdotes of Literature and scarce Books, are expected to appear next month.

Mr. Shipp, veterinary surgeon of the 23d light dragoons, has in the press a work in 4to, on the leading characteristics of the Diseases of Horses; it contains the result of his observations in his own immediate practice.

Dr. Jones, master of the Kentish Town academy, proposes to publish by subscription a select number of the most admired Orations

of Cicero, translated into English, from the best Latin editions.

Mr. Cuthbertson of Poland Street, has in the press a work on Practical Electricity and Galvanism, being a translation of the most interesting experiments, contained in a treatise published by him during his late residence in Holland, with the addition of such as have since been invented.

In the press—More Miseries; being a continuation of the "Miseries of Human Life" with a curious frontispiece. By Sir Fretful Murmur, Kt.

Mr. Dallas has a new romance in the press, intitled the Knights.

Mr. Barclay's new work on the Muscles, is expected shortly

Mr. Burns (of Glasgow) has a practical work on Hemorrhage, in the press.

There is now in the press a History of Jamaica, written by a gentleman sometime resident in that island. In order to give a complete view of the present state of this valuable colony, the author has written separate dissertations on the climate and soil, topography, laws, trade, natural and commercial productions, state of the negroes, and proposals for the amelioration of their condition; diseases of Europeans and Negroes, and the customs, manners, and dispositions of the inhabitants of Jamaica: forming an accurate estimate of the condition and valuable nature of this flourishing colony.

Mr. Boosey intends speedily to publish, for the use of students of the Spanish language, a work under the title of La Floresta Espanola, being extracts in prose, from the works of celebrated Spanish writers, ancient and modern. The intention of this performance is to combine instruction with amusement; and he flatters himself from the care that will be taken in the selection of the materials, that his publication will meet with encouragement from the admirers of Castilian literature.

In the press, a work entitled the Corsican, or the Universal Banditto, an historical drama, in five acts, exhibiting the characters, moral and political, of the principal personages throughout the Revolution of France; with their portraits reduced from the original oil-paintings in the Museum at Paris.

NEW EDITIONS.

The second edition of Dr. Neilson's Greek Exercises and Key, printed at the Clarendon press, will appear in a short time.

A new edition of Leland's Life of Philip King of Macedon, is just ready for publication.

An edition of Grotius de Veritate, with numerous corrections of the text, may be expected from the Clarendon press.

A new edition of Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, in 6 vols, 8vo. and another edition in 4to, are passing through the same press.

A new edition of Colonel Steadman's account of Surinam, will soon appear.

The second editon of the Miniature, a collection of essays, on the most interesting subjects, on the plan of the "Microcosm," by the gentlemen of Eton College, is in the press. 2 vols., small 8vo.

Dr. W. Heberden will speedily publish, the third edition corrected, of his Commentaries on the History and Cure of Diseases, 1 vol. 8vo. Also, the second edition of the same work in Latin, 1 vol. 8vo.

The third edition of Montgomery's Poems, will appear in November.

The second edition of Clarkson's Account of Quakers is nearly ready for publication.

Dr. Robert Anderson has nearly completed the third edition of the Miscellaneous works of Tobias Smollet, M. D. with Memoirs of his Life and Writings.

Mr. Lawrence has nearly ready for publication the fifth edition of his New Farmer's Calendar, which will contain his observations during several seasons, for ascertaining the cause of those maladies to which corn and other vegetables, are liable from changes of weather.

A new edition in quarto of Dr. Johnson's English Dictionary, is expected to appear immediately.

In the press—Original Poems, on various occasions, by a Lady, revised and corrected by Wm. Cowper, Esq.

A new and much enlarged edition, being the third, of the British Tourists, including the most celebrated recent tours in the British islands; by Dr. Mavor.

The same author has just completed at press, a new and improved edition of Holmes's Rhetoric, which has long been out of print.

A new edition of Dr. Valpy's Greek Grammar, with corrections and considerable improvements, will be sent to press towards the close of this year.

In a few days will be published a new edition with improvements, The Ambulator; or, a Pocket Companion in a Tour round London in the circuit of twenty-five miles.

AMERICA.

Messrs. Stansbury, Ronalds, Osborn and Hopkins, of New York, have in the press an edition of Walker's Critical and Pronouncing Dictionary, and Exposition of the English Language. 1 vol. 8vo

The Rev. William Price and Joseph Jones of Wilmington, Delaware have issued proposals for publishing by subscription, in 4 vols. 4to. Dr. John Gill's Doctrinal and Practical Exposition of the New Testament.

FRANCE.

M. Lacretelle has in the press, an Historical Detail of the French Revolution.

M. Toulongeon is expected to publish a History of France from the year 1789.

GERMANY.

A GERMAN translation of the new edition of Tiraboschi's History of Italian Literature, *which is not yet published*, is expected in Germany as soon as the original can be procured, translated and printed.

ITALY.

Tiraboschi's History of Italian Literature is to be reprinted at Florence. This edition will be augmented by a supplement, which will continue the history to the present time. The author left at his decease a considerable number of MSS. which are in possession of the editors: this with several other fortunate circumstances, has encouraged them to undertake the difficult enterprize.

* * * * *

FINE ARTS.

Mr. Bowyer, Historic Gallery, Pall Mall, intends to publish a splendid whole length Portrait of the Right Hon. William Pitt, from the celebrated picture painted for the Corporation of the Trinity-House. Size of the print 24 1 half inches by 17. No money to be paid till the print is delivered; but it is requested that those who would wish to secure the finest impressions will give immediate intimation to Mr. Bowyer, that their names may be entered accordingly. Proofs 3 guineas, prints 1 guinea and a half.

Mr. Bowyer also promises a whole length Portrait of the late Lord Nelson; it will be engraved by Mr. Bromley, of the same size and price as the portrait of Mr. Pitt.

Mr. M. Haughton's Series of Engravings from Milton, Shakespeare, and Dante, after paintings by Mr. Fuseli, is forwarding as expeditiously as the work will admit.

The Rev. Edward Forster, A. M. has announced his intention of publishing a splendid work, to be entitled, The British Gallery of Engravings, from the pictures of the Flemish, Italian, French, Dutch and English schools, now in the possession of his Majesty, and the noblemen and gentlemen of the united kingdom; with some account of each picture, and a life of the artist. Also a Short History of the Arts of Painting and Engraving, including their rise and progress in Great Britain. The work will be published in numbers, containing four plates each, as frequently as a proper attention to excellence will permit. It will be in imperial folio, and the plates will vary according to the nature and fullness of the subjects: the largest 12 inches by 9; the smallest 6 inches by 4. Every plate will be finished in the very best stile, in the line manner, by artists of the first abilities in this country. Mr. Forster has already obtained permission to have engravings made from the pictures in the several collections of his Majesty; of the Dukes of Bedford and Devonshire; of the Marquisses of Stafford and Thomond; of the Earls of Suffolk, Dartmouth, Dysart, Cowper, Warwick, Egremont, Grosvenor, and Carlisle; of Lords Yarborough and Radstock; of Sir G. Beaumont, Sir Francis Baring, Messrs. Coke, Coxe, Hibbert, Henry Hope, Thomas Hope, and West. Several pictures have been some time in hand, and the first and second numbers are promised in the course of the winter, by Mr. W. Miller of Albemarle-street. The letter-press will be in the English and French languages.

Mr. H. B. Chalons, animal painter to the Duke of York, proposes to publish a portrait of Major Topham's celebrated grey-hound Snow-ball, and a likeness of the old groom who trained him, in metzotinto, by Ward.

M. Manskirch, who was employed for some time by Messrs. Boydells, in making designs on the river Thames, has been lately engaged in delineating the scenery on the banks of the Rhine. A series of these Views will be published by Mr. Ackermann.

Mr. Ackermann has issued proposals for publishing by subscription, two Views in the City of Dublin, after drawings by Mr. T. S. Roberts. The first, a South View on the River Liffy, taken from the Coal Quarry, or Fruit Market; the second, A View of College Green, Westmoreland-street, part of Sackville-street, and Carlisle Bridge, taken from the Provost's House, Grafton-street. They will be ready for delivery about Christmas. Size 35 by 28 inches.

LITERARY RETROSPECT.

AMERICA.

The following is a list of periodical works, now publishing in North America: although imperfect, it will convey some idea of the increasing literary prosperity of that country; many of them have been commenced in the course of the last and present year.

The Literary Miscellany, quarterly, Cambridge, 100 pages, 8vo. price 50 cents.

The Literary Magazine and American Register, monthly, at Philadelphia.

The Mathematical Correspondent, New York, by T. and J. Swords, 24 pages 12mo. 18½ cents.

The Monthly Anthology and Boston Review, containing Sketches and Reports of Philosophy, Religion, History, Arts, and Manners. Boston, 50 pages, 8vo. 37½ cents.

The Medical Repository, quarterly, New York.

Collections of the Historical Society, published at Boston, generally an annual volume.

Transactions of the American Philosophical Society.

Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

The Polyanthos, by J. T. Buckingham, Boston, monthly, with plates.

The Medical and Agricultural Register, monthly, 16 pages 8vo. 1 dollar per annum.

At Charlestown, South Carolina, a new periodical publication has been commenced by Mr. S. C. Carpenter, entitled, The Monthly Register and Review of the United States. 6 dollars per ann.

The following are Religious works, and the profits are devoted to Missionary purposes.

The Connecticut Evangelical Magazine, at Hartford, monthly; 40 pages 8vo. 12½ cents.

The Massachusett's Missionary Magazine, at Boston, monthly, 40 pages 8vo. 12½ cents.

The Piscataqua Evangelical Magazine, at Portsmouth, in 2 months, 40 pages 8vo. 12½ cents.

The Assembly's Missionary Magazine, or Evangelical Intelligencer. Philadelphia, monthly, 50 pages 8vo. 25 cents. With portraits.

The Massachusett's Baptist Missionary Magazine, occasionally, at Boston, 12½ cents.

The Christian's Magazine. New York, quarterly, 120 pages 8vo. 37½ cents.

The Christian Monitor, quarterly, Boston.

The Panoplist, conducted by an Association of Friends to Evangelical Truth. Boston.

A Committee of the North Consociation of Hartford county, has published An Abridgment of Henry on Prayer, consisting of a judicious collection of Scriptures, proper to the several parts of that duty, with an essay on the nature and duty of prayer; with forms of prayer annexed, 50 cents.

At Hartford, Abel Flint, A. M. has compiled from various authors, and published a System of Geometry and Trigonometry, including a treatise on Surveying;—on calculating the area of a Field, arithmetically, without the necessity of plotting it;—and several mathematical tables for solving questions in Trigonometry and surveying, with an explanation of the manner of using them.

Mr. Robert Monro has published at New York, A Description of the Genessee country in the state of New York, describing its situation, dimensions, civil divisions, soil, minerals, produce, lakes and rivers, manufactures, population, &c. An appendix contains a description of the military lands.

At Salem, Massachusetts, has been published, The Salem, Collection of Classical Sacred Music, selected from the works of the most eminent composers: a short introduction to Psalmody is prefixed.

FRANCE.

The Travels of Mr. W. Hodges in India, have lately been translated into French, by M. L. Langles, Member of the Institute, and accompanied by geographical, historical, and political notes.

Sir Joshua Reynold's works have been translated into French, with his life prefixed.

GERMANY.

At Elwangen, a very considerable library has been formed by uniting the collection of several suppressed Convents. It is said to contain two hundred very ancient parchment MSS.

M. de Pallhausen, has submitted to the inspection of the Academy of Sciences at Munich, a specimen of his new Stereography. This specimen consisted of a versified history of the invention of printing, written by himself, and dedicated to the Shade of Guttunberg; but M. de P. shines more as a typographer than as a poet.

M. C. F. Weise the celebrated German poet left a considerable quantity of materials for his own biography, including a great number of letters from distinguished literati of Germany; these materials have been arranged by his relation Mr. Frisch, and form an interesting work (*Seilbst biographic*; Leipzic, 8vo. pp. 320, 1 vol. 1 rxd. 16 gr.)

A work entitled, The Discoveries of the Nineteenth Century, as far as relating to Geography and a knowledge of different people, extracted from the best modern voyages is commenced at Erfort by M. T. Hoepfner; the first volume just published contains an account of the Island of Ceylon, extracted from Capt. Percival; with the English Ambassador's Travels to Candia in 1800; also, an account of the mode of life and the customs of the Calmucks, from Burgman. *Die Entdekungen des neunzehnten Jahrhunderts.* Vol I. 8vo. pp. 280. 18 gr.

Two German translations of M. Leroy's Maternal Medicine, or mode of bringing up, and preserving the health of children, have been published; one by M. C. F. Birsch at Bareuth (*Hygæa als Mütter*; 2 vols. 8vo. 1 rxd. 12 gr.) the other by Dr. F. Fischer at Hildbourghausen (Hulkunde für Mütter, 8vo. 1 rxd. 18 gr.

M. G. L. Bauer has published at Nuremberg, the second volume of his History of the Jews, (*Handbuch der Geschichte der Hebraeischen Nation*, 8vo. pp. 440, pr. 3 flor.)

At Nuremberg, the bookseller Fravenholy has published the first number of the second volume of the *Dactyliotheca Stoschiana*, or Collection of Gems of the Baron de Stosch, now in the Royal Museum of Prussia. The engravings are elucidated by the well-known descriptions of Winckelmann, with additional observations by M. Schlichtegroll. When the first volume appeared in 1797, the editor intended to engrave only the more remarkable gems of the collection; he now, however, intends to publish the whole. This first number consists of 12 plates and 60 pages of letter press, 4to. pr 9 fr. per number.

M. H. Nysten's Galvanic Experiments on the Muscles of the Human Species, and on warm-blooded Animals, has been translated into German, by M. F. Doerner, and

published at Fubingen *(Neue Galvanische Versuche.)*

M. J. G. Link has published at Leipsic, in 2 vols. a work on Animal History and Physiology: the first volume relates to the *general physiology* of animals, their exterior anatomy, powers and conformation: the second volume includes their *particular physiology* and relates to their interior conformation, and the structure and functions of the intestines *(Versuch einer Geschichte und Physiologie, 2 vols. 8vo. 2 rxd. 12 gr.)*

The first volume of the Transactions of the Society for the advancement of the Natural History and Industry of Silesia, in 2 parts, published by Renqu at Italie and of Mr. Herrman at Breslau.

M. J. B. Siebold, jun. has commenced at Nuremberg a new periodical work dedicated to the advancement of chirurgical knowledge and intended to notice every circumstance relative to the theory, practice, history and literature of surgery, it is illustrated with plates *(Chiron*; vol. 1. Nos. 1. 2. 8vo. 5 plates, Seidel, 3 flor. 24 kr.)

The same author superintends a medical work, of which the first volume has lately appeared at Rudolstadt; it consists of a selection of observations and experiments illustrated by engravings: the volume is divided into three sections, 1st, Memoirs communicated to the Editor; 2d, a continuation of M. Siebold, senr. Chirurgical Journal; the 3d is appropriated to memoirs and observations by the editor *(Sammburg seltener Beobachturgen etc. vol. 1. pp. 280, 3 plates, 1 rxd. 12 gr.)*

The volume of Memoirs for 1805, published by the Academy of the useful Sciences, established at Erford, contains essays on the following subjects: 1st on Electric Fish, by M. A. de Heum boldt: 2d on the Oxid of Antimony, by F. Bucholz: 3d on the Existence of Azote in the acetic acid, by F. Tromsdorf: 4th on some kinds of Veronica, but little known in the South of Germany, by Bernardi: 5th on some species of Fungi, by Habule.

M. J. T. Maier has published at Gottingen, a work on the Elements of Astronomy: the first division treats of the motions of the celestial bodies; the second includes the theory of the Earth, and the third relates to Meteorology *(Lehrbuch über die physische Astronomie*, 8vo, pp. 340. 2 plates.)

At Leipsic, a new periodical publication on agricultural affairs has just commenced, comprising a selection of Observations, Experiments and Notices relating to Rural and Domestic Economy *(Oekodomische Hefte, &c.)*

The *Journal für Fabricks*, Journal of Manufactures, Commerce and Fashions for 1806, published at Leipsic, contains the following articles; 1. on the situation of the commerce of Hamburgh, in the months of November and December 1806, by M. Hagenbruck; 2. account of the commerce and manufactures of the department of the Lower Pyrenees; 3. on making public the modes of operation employed in manufactories; 4. on the course of exchange between Leipsic and London, via Vienna and Augsbourgh, by M. Wagner; 5. account of the colony of Demerara; 6. on the Andre Rospino burning lens; 7. on the Cocoa Nut tree; 8. description of a new Pendulum.

HOLLAND.

M. Kinker has translated M. Raymond's drama, "the Templairs," into Dutch, it has been highly approved, and 500 copies have been sold in one month, although it had not been represented.

M. Loosjes, a dramatic writer, has published two new works; one entitled, John de Witt, presents the principal circumstances of that celebrated character's life, in the shape of a dramatic novel; the other production is a dialogue under the name of a Voyage to Catwyk.

Mr. C. F. Cramer has published at Amsterdam, three volumes of a translation of Miss Baillie's plays.

Two new periodical publications have been commenced this year, which, although not exclusively devoted to literature, pay more particular attention to it, than any other publication of the country. One is entitled The Review of Reviews, the other, The Star: the latter is remarkable for its severity.

It has been observed by one of our foreign correspondents, that since Holland has become a French kingdom, their lively masters have done all in their power to introduce French manners, taste, and sentiments in every institution, as well of science, of art, of poetry, and of public amusement, as in the official departments of the state; whether this plan will succeed is uncertain: because the natural slowness of the Dutch, is, at the present moment considerably augmented by the reluctance which that people feels to amalgamate with their domineering rulers.

ITALY.

The Templars, a celebrated dramatic piece by M. Raymond, which attracted so much attention at Paris, has been translated into Italian, by Sig. Franco Salfi, of Milan, author of several successful scenic productions; it has been twice represented at Milan with great applause.

At Florence is commenced a work intitled *Bibliotheca piacevole ed instruttiva*, The Amusing and Instructive Library; it consists of a translation of the best English, French, and German novels and romances.

London Premiums of Insurance, 21st October, 1806.

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Limerick ....5 *gs.* ret. 2
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Riga and *Prussian Ports to* London...6 *gs.*

Current Prices of Merchandize, 21st October, 1806.

American pot-ash, per cwt	£2	1	0	to £3	2	0		
Ditto pearl	2	10	0		3	18	0	
Barilla	1	19	0		2	0	0	
Brandy, Coniac ....gal.	0	17	0		0	18	6	
Ditto Spanish	0	15	6		0	16	3	
Camphire refined,....lb.	0	5	6		0	6	0	
Ditto unrefined, cwt	20	0	0		22	10	0	
Cochineal, garbled....lb.	1	4	0		1	8	0	
Ditto East-India	0	3	3		0	6	0	
Coffee, fine.....cwt.	7	10	0		8	5	0	
Ditto ordinary	5	5	0		6	10	0	
Cotton-wool, Surinam,lb.	0	1	11		0	2	2	
Ditto Jamaica....	0	1	5½		0	1	8	
Ditto Smyrna	0	1	3		0	1	6	
Ditto East-India ..	0	1	9		0	2	0	
Currants Zant.....cwt.	3	15	0		3	18	0	
Deals, Dant ....piece	1	13	0		1	17	0	
Ditto Petersburgh ..H.	22	0	0		24	0	0	
Ditto Stockholm	39	0	0		41	0	0	
Flax, Riga .....ton	66	0	0		68	0	0	
Ditto Petersburgh	65	0	0		66	0	0	
Galls, Turkey .....cwt	5	5	0		6	6	0	
Geneva, Hollands ..gal.	0	18	0		0	19	0	
Ditto English	0	8	0		0	11	0	
Gum Arabic, Turkey, cwt.	6	0	0		10	15	0	
Ditto Sandrach	14	0	0		15	0	0	
Ditto Tragacanth	19	10	0		21	0	0	
Hemp, Riga.....ton	64	0	0		65	0	0	
Ditto Petersburgh	64	0	0		65	0	0	
Indigo, Carraca .....lb.	0	12	6		0	14	0	
Ditto East-India.....	0	11	0		0	14	6	
Ditto Jamaica.....	none				—			
Iron, British, bars, ton	18	0	0		19	0	0	
Ditto Swedish	25	0	0		26	0	0	
Ditto Norway	24	0	0		25	0	0	
Ditto Archangel.....	25	0	0		26	0	0	
Lead in pigs.....fod	30	0	0		—			
Ditto red .....ton	36	0	0		37	0	0	
Ditto white.....	54	0	0		55	0	0	
Logwood cnpt 44 .....ton	14	0	0		16	0	0	

Madder, Dutch crop, cwt.	£4	5	0	to £4	18	0		
Mahogany.....ft.	0	1	0		0	2	5	
Oak plank, Dantz. ..last	11	0	0		12	0	0	
Ditto American ..	9	5	0		10	15	0	
Oil, Lucca,—25 gal. jar	13	15	0		14	0	0	
Ditto spermaceti ..ton	68	0	0		70	0	0	
Ditto whale	28	0	0		31	10	0	
Ditto Florence, ½ chest	2	7	0		2	9	0	
Pitch, Stockholm.. cwt.	0	14	9		0	15	0	
Quick silver ..... lb.	0	4	3		0	4	4	
Raisins, bloom ....cwt.	4	8	0		5	10	0	
Ditto Malaga.....	none				—			
Rice, Carolina	1	10	0		2	2	0	
Ditto East-India.....	uncertain				—			
Rum, Jamaica..... gal.	0	3	6		0	4	6	
Ditto Leeward I	0	2	9		0	3	3	
Saltpetre, East-India, cwt.	3	2	0		—			
Shellack	4	0	0		11	5	0	
Thrown Silk, Italian, lb.	1	12	0		2	10	0	
Raw-Silk. Ditto	0	18	0		1	14	0	
Ditto China	1	17	8		2	0	6	
Ditto Beng. novi	1	16	0		2	5	0	
Ditto organzine.	1	11	7		1	18	0	
Tar, Stockholm .... bar.	1	7	0		1	8	0	
Tin in blocks .....cwt.	6	6	0		—			
Tobacco, Maryl.... lb.	0	1	0		0	1	1	
Ditto Virginia.....	0	0	4½		0	0	8	
Whale-fins .....ton	20	0	0		25	0	0	
Red port..... pipe	66	0	0		98	0	0	
Lisbon	45	0	0		91	0	0	
Madeira	70	0	0		122	0	0	
Sherry .....butt	80	0	0		95	0	0	
Mountain	72	0	0		80	0	0	
Vidonia..... hogs.	69	0	0		76	0	0	
Calcavella.....pipe	84	0	0		95	0	0	
Claret.....hogs.	35	0	0		98	0	0	
Tallow, English....cwt.	3	1	0		—			
Ditto Russia, white..	2	16	0		2	17	0	
Ditto .... yellow..	2	18	0		2	19	0	

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Smithfield, per stone of 8lb. to sink the offal.

	Beef.	Mutton.	Veal.	Pork.	Lamb.
Sept. 26	5s. 0d.	5s. 2d.	5s. 0d.	5s. 4d.	5s. 6d.
Oct. 3	5 0	5 2	5 4	6 0	5 0
10	4 10	5 4	5 4	6 8	5 4
17	5 0	5 4	6 0	6 0	5 6

Newgate and Leadenhall, by the carcase.

Sept. 26	4	4	4	6	4	8	5	0	5	0
Oct. 3	4	0	4	4	5	0	6	4	4	6
10	4	0	4	8	5	0	6	4	5	0
17	4	4	4	8	6	0	6	0	5	0

	St. James's.*		Whitechapel.*	
	Hay.	Straw.	Hay.	Straw.
Sept. 26	£4 18 0	£2 3 6	£4 18 0	£2 8 0
Oct. 3	4 16 0	2 11 0	5 0 0	2 6 0
10	4 16 0	2 11 0	5 0 0	2 8 0
17	4 18 0	2 11 0	4 18 0	2 10 0

PRICE OF HOPS.

Bags.		Pockets.	
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Essex	3 16 — 5 5	Farn.	8 8 — 9 15

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Ditto, 50 to 70 — — — —	42

TALLOW,* London Average per stone of 8lb. 3s. 6½d.

Soap, yellow, 76s.; mottled, 86s.; curd, 90s.

Candles, per dozen, 10s. 6d.; moulds, 11s. 6d.

COALS IN THE RIVER.

	Sunderland.	Newcastle.
Sept. 29	40s. 0d. to 45s. 6d.	43s. 3d. to 52s. 6d.
Oct. 6	47 9 — 48 0	45 6 — 55 0
13	44 0 — 47 6	45 6 — 55 0
20	44 0 — 47 6	48 9 — 56 0

Delivered at 12s. per chaldron advance.

PRICE OF BREAD.

	Peck Loaf.	Half Peck.	Quartern.
Sept. 25	4s 4d	2s. 2d.	1s. 1d.
Oct. 2	4 5	2 2½	1 1½
9	4 5	2 2½	1 1½
16	4 4	2 2	1 1

Those marked thus * are taken at the highest price of the market.

LONDON WEEKLY RETURNS OF WHEAT.

Sept. 20	9,830 quarters.	Average 77s.	0¼d.
27	5,970 — — — —	80	4½
Oct. 4	6,300 — — — —	76	6½
11	8,605 — — — —	74	5

FLOUR.

Sept. 26	15,382 sacks.	Average	69s. 7d.
Oct. 3	8,345 — — — —	74	2
10	8,629 — — — —	72	4½

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Sep.	8 o'clock Morning.	Noon. 1 o'clock.	11 o'clock Night.	Height of Barom. Inches.	Dryness by Leslie's Hygrom.	
21	60	67	55	30,19	25	Cloudy
22	55	69	55	29,99	41	Fair
23	56	65	54	,99	25	Cloudy
24	54	57	47	30,10	20	Cloudy
25	47	60	57	,22	25	Fair
26	44	64	52	,24	56	Fair
27	56	64	54	,20	36	Fair
28	55	63	58	,12	26	Fair
29	59	58	55	29,82	0	Rain
30	50	63	50	,96	36	Fair
Oct.						
1	44	59	51	30,02	27	Fair
2	46	60	55	29,98	30	Fair
3	55	60	56	,61	6	Rain
4	56	64	55	,76	14	Showery
5	56	60	56	30,02	25	Fair
6	57	64	51	,18	42	Fair
7	46	59	55	,34	15	Cloudy
8	55	59	54	,28	47	Cloudy
9	55	62	54	,20	36	Cloudy
10	54	59	53	,10	25	Cloudy
11	55	60	54	,05	35	Fair
12	52	58	46	,02	29	Fair
13	45	59	53	29,85	25	Fair
14	55	62	54	,70	21	Showery
15	51	59	55	,76	20	Fair
16	53	55	50	,74	18	Cloudy
17	49	54	47	,74	24	Fair
18	42	54	43	,50	33	Fair
19	47	56	42	,56	27	Fair
20	42	52	50	,60	10	Showery

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

	Sept. 26.	October 3.	October 10.	October 17.
Amsterdam	36 9—2 u.	36 7—2 u.	36 7—2 u.	35-11—2 u.
Ditto at sight	36-0	35-10	35-10	35-2
Rotterdam, c.f.	11 9—2 u.	11 8—2 u.	11 8—2 u.	11 5—2 u.
Hamburgh	34-1—2½ u.	34—2½ u.	34—2½ u.	33-5—2 u.
Altona —	34 2—2½ u.	34 1—2½ u.	34-1—2½ u.	33-6—2 u.
Paris —	24 2 liv.	24 0 liv.	24 0 liv.	24 0 liv.
Ditto 2 us.	24-10	24-4	24-4	24-4
Bordeaux —	24	24	24	24
Cadiz —	38¼ effect	38¼ effect.	38¼ effect.	38¼ effect.
Madrid —	38¼ effect	38¼ effect.	38¼ effect.	38¼ effect.
Bilboa —	38	38	38¼	38¼
Leghorn —	51	51¼	51¼	51¼
Naples —	44	44	44	44
Genoa —	47 liv. pic.	47 liv. pic.	47 liv. pic.	47 liv. pic.
Venice, *n. C*	57 ditto	55 ditto	55 ditto	55 ditto
Lisbon —	61¼	61¼	61¼	61¼
Oporto —	61¼	61¼	61¼	61¼
Dublin —	12¼	12¼	12¼	12¼
Cork —	13¼	13¼	13¼	13¼

PRICES OF BULLION

	Per oz. £ s. d.	Per oz. £ s. d.	Per oz. £ s. d.	Per oz. £ s. d.
Portugal gold in coin and bars	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0
Doubloons —	—	—	—	—
New dollars —	0 5 4	0 5 4	0 5 6½	0 5 6½
Silver in bars —	0 5 6½	0 5 6½	0 5 6½	0 5 6½
New Louis, each	—	—	—	—
Agio on Bank of Holland, 5 pcc.	—	—	—	—

Daily Prices of STOCKS, from 23d SEPTEMBER to 20th OCTOBER, 1806.

	Bank Stock.	3 p. Cent. Reduced.	3 p. Cent. Consols.	4 p. Cent. Cons. 1780.	3 per Cent. Def.	Navy 5 per Cent.	Long Annuities.	Consol. Short Anns.	5 p. Cent. 1797.	Omnium.	Imperial 3 p. Cent.	Ditto Annuities.	India Stock.	India Scrip.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Annuit.	New Ditto.	Navy and Vict. Bills.	3d. Excheq. Bills.	3½ d. Ditto.	Lottery Tickets. £. s. d.	Consols for Acct.	Irish Omnium.	Irish 5 p. Cent 1.
Sep. 23	*shut*	*shut*	63	*shut*	—	95½	*shut*	*shut*	—	6¾	—	8¼	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	1 P	—	63	—	—
24	—	—	62¾	—	—	95	—	—	—	6¼	62¼	8¼	—	—	1 D	—	—	—	—	—	par	—	62¾	—	—
25	—	—	63⅛	—	—	95⅛	—	—	—	7⅛	62¼	8⅜	—	—	1 D	—	—	—	—	—	1 P	—	63⅜	—	—
26	222	—	63¼	—	—	95¼	—	—	—	8	62¼	8⅜	187	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	par	—	63¼	—	—
27	—	—	63⅜	—	—	95¼	—	—	—	7⅛	62¼	8⅜	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	19 17 0	—	—	—
30	222½	—	62⅞	—	—	95⅛	—	—	—	7⅛	62⅜	8⅜	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	63⅜	—	—
Oct. 1	—	—	63⅜	—	—	95⅛	—	—	—	7⅛	62⅜	8⅜	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	63⅜	—	—
2	—	—	63	—	—	95⅛	—	—	—	7	62⅜	8⅜	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	par	—	63¼	—	—
3	—	—	63	—	—	95⅛	—	—	—	7	—	8¼	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	—	19 17 0	—	—	—
4	—	—	62⅝	—	—	95⅛	—	—	—	6¼	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	19 17 0	62¼	—	—
6	—	—	62⅝	—	—	94⅝	—	—	—	6¼	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	62¼	—	—
7	223½	—	62⅝	—	—	94⅜	—	—	—	6¼	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	62¼	—	—
8	—	—	62⅜	—	—	94⅜	—	—	—	6¼	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	par	—	61⅝	—	—
9	—	—	61	—	—	92⅜	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	par	—	—	—	—	—	1 P	19 17 0	61⅝	—	—
10	—	—	61⅛	—	—	92⅛	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	19 17 0	61⅝	—	—
11	210½	—	61¼	—	—	92⅛	17½	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—
13	212½	60⅜	61¼	77½	—	93¼	17⅛	—	—	4¼	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—
14	211	60½	61¼	77½	—	93⅛	17⅛	—	—	4¼	—	—	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—
15	211½	60½	61¼	78⅜	—	94¼	17⅛	—	—	4¼	—	—	181	—	3 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—
16	212½	60½	61¼	78⅜	—	94¼	17⅛	—	—	4¼	—	—	183	—	3 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—
17	—	60½	61¼	78⅜	—	94¼	17⅛	—	—	4¼	—	—	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	19 17 0	—	—	—
20	—	60¼	61⅛	79	—	96	17⅛	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—